

SOCIAL CORRELATES OF PARENTAL ATTITUDES
TOWARD EDUCATION IN THE CITY OF ST. JOHN'S

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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LAWRENCE G. MOSS

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SOCIAL CORRELATES OF PARENTAL ATTITUDES
TOWARD EDUCATION IN THE
CITY OF ST. JOHN'S

A Thesis

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by

Lawrence G. Moss

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend for acceptance, a thesis entitled SOCIAL CORRELATES OF PARENTAL ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION IN THE CITY OF ST. JOHN'S submitted by Lawrence G. Moss in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

(Supervisor)

(Internal Reader)

(External Reader)

Date _____

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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether the attitudes of St. John's parents toward education were related to the social variables of religion, sex, family size, socio-economic level, and mother's education.

The study was carried out among a sample of parents of grade six students in St. John's. Information was collected from the parents by means of a self-administered questionnaire and attitude scale. Socio-economic level was found by referring the occupation of the father of the family to the Blishen Occupational Scale.

The attitude of the spouse was found to be the independent variable most closely related to the attitude of parents toward education. Socio-economic level was also found to be a reliable predictor of educational attitude. Both these variables were stronger predictors of attitude for Protestant than for Catholic parents.

The number of children in the family was found to be inversely related to the attitudes of the mothers but not to those of the fathers. Mothers' level of education was also found to be related to their attitudes toward education.

The implication here is not that attempts should be made to change parental attitudes toward education. This may be too big

a task for the school. Rather it is suggested that the school, through its administration, should relate to the parents of its students in terms of the expectations which they hold for the school. Inasmuch as these expectations have been found to differ according to social class, religion, sex, and family size, the schools' relationships with parents should vary along these lines as well.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the sociological analysis of education lay dormant for a period of some twenty-five years prior to the decade of the fifties, new interest is being shown by a growing body of sociologists in this very fertile field of sociological research.¹ In 1959, Gross suggested four strategic areas for sociological inquiry:

1. Social structure and functioning of schools;
2. The classroom as a social structure;
3. The external environment of the school;
4. Education as an occupation and as a career.²

The sociological analysis of the external environment of the school, into which context this study falls, has focused primarily on one main problem area - the impact of social class on education.³ This problem area, however, has been studied at two

¹D. A. Hanses and J. E. Gerstl, On Education - Sociological Perspectives, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967), vii-ix.

²N. Gross, "The Sociology of Education" in R. K. Merton (ed.), Sociology Today: Problems and Perspectives, (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959), p. 131.

³Ibid., p. 144.

widely divergent levels: the relative influence which members of the various social classes have upon educational decision making and the social class position of educators, students, and parents and its consequences for education.

School systems in general, and teachers in particular, have frequently been accused of operating in a vacuum, of not relating their programs and practices to the peculiarities of the social milieu in which they exist. These charges have been laid at one time or another by practically every sector of the community: politicians, the professions, the churches, industry, parents, and, more recently, the students themselves. These charges state that the schools have set themselves up as ivory towers, with outmoded goals and methods that have no relevance to the needs and wishes of the society which they have been established to serve.

The schools try to counter these charges with pleas of helplessness. "They don't care." is the general reaction of educators in trying to justify the failure of the schools to work cooperatively with the community in the establishment of relevant goals. This countercharge has been levelled most often at parents, and more particularly at parents of lower socio-economic backgrounds. It is their children which school administrators and teachers often perceive as most problematic in terms of behavior and achievement. Educators glibly acknowledge the existence of differing social values and behaviors among students and their parents, but very often fail to take this into account in their curricular and public relations programs.

They do realize that children of certain social categories behave and perform differently but seem unable to initiate effective remedial action or even to understand the causes of these differences.

At the risk of oversimplifying the causes, we may say that the behavior of children differs because they have been subjected to different experiences at various levels of development. They are, like Ulysses, a part of all that they have met. Their lives with their parents, friends, and neighbours; their exposure (or lack of exposure) to school, television, radio, movies, books, and other media have made them what they are. Any variation in a child's relationship with any one of these elements will probably cause him to behave differently. One would expect this to be especially so because of the child's relationships with his parents and other members of his primary group. It is largely through the primary group that the influences of class, religion, race, and other social elements affect the behavioral development of the child. In the pre-adolescent years of development it is the influence of the immediate family that is the strongest single factor bearing on the development of the attitudes and values that will control the individual's behavior throughout life.¹

¹E. Katz and P. F. Lazarsfeld, Personal Influence, (New York: The Free Press, 1964), p. 48. See also J. A. Palmer, Home Environment and Achievement: The First Five Years, (Toronto: The Board of Education for the City of Toronto, 1967).

Kitchen states that

"For adults, especially in the generally impersonal society of the city, the work group is, next to the family, very important, although neighbours and other friends may be significant also. It is largely through these primary groups that the influences of social class, religion, ethnicity and other secondary groups reach the individual. Thus, from the point of view of value orientations, each individual can be seen as linked by ties of varying influence to each of the individuals forming his primary groups. Each of the individual's secondary groups consists of himself, usually some or all of the members of his primary groups, and other people, with the influence on a particular individual of a secondary group varying with the number of his primary group members in it."¹

This is not to deny, of course, that many values are held in common by persons of all social backgrounds or that all inhabitants of a given cultural background learn similar values and behaviors. However, Allison Davis states that, on a national level, these common cultural traits are relatively few.²

It has been the writer's experience that, while recognizing that differing value systems exist in society, schools continue to relate to their environments as if they were socially homogeneous. That many of the values and concomitant behavioral differences of children have been learned from parents and that differing parental

¹H. W. Kitchen, "Relationships Between the Value-Orientations of Grade Nine Pupils in Newfoundland and the Characteristics of Their Primary and Secondary Groups", (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Alberta, 1966), p. 113.

²Allison Davis, Social Class Influences Upon Learning, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1948), p. 3.

values and behaviors are related to their cultural backgrounds is knowledge which has been available to educators for some time.¹

This inclination to ignore the implications of different social values for educational policy is symptomatic of a broader tendency of many educational systems to treat the education of children as if the educational function were independent of current social problems when, in fact, greater efforts need to be made to make education the catalyst for the solution of social ills.² The school is part of the social structure and, as such, must function within that structure and in relation to the other social forces operative within it. It cannot be divorced from society and yet expect to have an impact upon it through the education of its members.

The reality of different value patterns and behavioral patterns should be enough to cause educators to seek out the nature and causes of such differences as they exist in their areas of jurisdiction. Their task then becomes one of adapting educational policy to the unique social climate of their areas and, in cooperation with the home and other agencies in the community, of preparing

¹R. J. Havighurst, "What are the Cultural Differences Which may Affect Performance on Intelligence Tests?" in K. Eels, et al., (eds.), Intelligence and Cultural Differences, (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959), pp. 16-21.

²R. J. Hills, "The Relationship Between the Educational Expectations of Social Class Groups and Role Expectations Within the Public School", (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1961), p.3.

their students to live and work as best they can given their different social backgrounds and a society in which equality of opportunity outside the school is dependent on equality of opportunity within the school.¹

II. THE PROBLEM DEFINED

A review of available literature written since the Second World War revealed to the investigator relatively few studies which examine specifically the relationship between social variables other than socio-economic status and parental attitudes toward education. These are reviewed in Chapter II. No such research has been carried out in the Province of Newfoundland.

The present study attempts to determine whether relationships exist between social background and attitudes in the City of St.

John's. Specifically, the study involves two basic problems:

1. To determine the extent to which parents of Grade Six students hold positive or negative attitudes toward formal education, and
2. to determine to what extent the four social variables of socio-economic level, mothers' education, family size, and religious denomination are related to these attitudes.

III. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study for educational administration rests upon the assumption that a knowledge of the attitudes that are

¹S. M. Lipset, "Mobility and Urbanization", Rural Sociology, 20 (1955), pp. 220-228.

held by the parents of a school population toward the education of their children and the various correlates of those attitudes is essential for effective communications between the school and the home. Such knowledge is also helpful in the establishment of more meaningful relationships between teachers and the individual student, of more realistic guidance and counselling of students, and of programs which more nearly meet the needs and aspirations of the students and their parents who, ultimately, comprise the society which schools are meant to serve.

In Chapter II evidence will be presented to show the relationships between the different educational values held by people of varying social backgrounds. Unique to the present study is the selection of a sample from a population whose children, because of unparalleled growth in the past twenty years, have educational opportunities as well as social pressures that the parents themselves did not have when they were of school age. This is due in part, to increased economic and social change in Newfoundland since Confederation with Canada in 1949; to improved communications and to vastly improved educational facilities.

A second claim to uniqueness may be made in that the sample selected grew up and were educated in a milieu in which even sports, the universal equalizer, were organized along sectarian lines. The determination and administration of educational policy and curriculum was a function of the churches and their appointed top level admin-

istrators, school board members, and teachers. Religious differences were thus emphasized at the church, recreation, and education levels. Since religion has been found to be one determinant of social attitudes, it may be expected that a religious system of education will accentuate the differences in attitude among religious groups.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will help to increase in Newfoundland educators an awareness of the relative values that parents of different social backgrounds and in different social situations place on education and the impact that these differences have on the attitudes, aspiration, and behaviors of the students in our schools.

IV. DEFINITION OF TERMS

This section contains operational definitions of each of the variables used in the study. Further details are contained in Chapter III.

Socio-economic Level.

Socio-economic level is defined as the relative positions of the respondents to the questionnaire on the Blishen Occupational Class Scale.¹

Attitude Toward Education.

Attitude toward education refers to the extent to which the respondents to the questionnaire considered education to be socially

¹B. R. Blishen, "The Construction and Use of an Occupational Class Scale", Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, 24 (November 1958), pp. 519-531. See also B. R. Blishen, "A Socio-economic Index for Occupations in Canada", The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, 4 (1967), pp. 41-53.

desirable or necessary as measured by the attitude scale and used in the study.

Family Size.

Family Size is defined as the number of children in the family as indicated by the respondents on the questionnaire used in the study.

Mothers' Education.

Mothers' education is defined as the number of years of formal education completed by the mother of the family as indicated on the questionnaire.

Religion.

Religion refers to the religious denomination of the respondents, coded as either Protestant or Catholic. Protestants included Anglican, United Church of Canada, Presbyterian, Baptist, Pentecostal, Salvation Army and Seventh Day Adventist. Catholic means Roman Catholic.

V. DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The study is limited to a random sample of the parents of Grade Six children in the schools of the City of St. John's.
2. The study is limited to the four social variables socio-economic level, mothers' education, family size, and family religion.
3. The study of attitudes toward education is limited to the continuum "does not value" to "highly values" education.

VI. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

Chapter I has outlined the need to analyse the attitudes of parents toward education and to identify the social correlates of these attitudes. It has also identified the problem, defined the terms to be used in the report, and stated the delimitations of the study. In Chapter II the relevant literature will be reviewed and the hypotheses presented. Chapter III will outline in detail the procedures employed in conducting the study, the instruments used, and the statistical analyses that will be used to interpret the data obtained. Chapter IV will contain the results of the statistical analyses and the testing of the hypotheses. Chapter V will comprise a summary of the findings as well as the investigator's conclusions and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter is a review of the literature relevant to the study, and presents the hypotheses which evolve from that review. Because it seemed to the investigator that there are many definitions of the concept of attitude and social class, it was felt necessary to review briefly the literature on these concepts before adopting working definitions for the purposes of this study. Following this, the literature surrounding each of the four independent variables is reviewed and the hypotheses derived from them are presented.

II. ATTITUDE THEORY AND METHODOLOGY

Many definitions of the concept of attitude have been posited since Allport's broad definition was advanced in 1935. Allport then stated that attitude was

"...a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related."¹

Murphy viewed attitude as "...primarily a way of being 'set' toward or against certain things."² Rosenberg described attitude

¹G. W. Allport, "Attitudes" in M. Fishbein, (ed.), Attitude Theory and Measurement, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967), p. 8.

²G. Murphy, et al., Experimental Social Psychology, (New York: Harper and Row, 1937), p. 889.

as a "relatively stable affective response to an object"¹ while Green called it that which "governs, or mediates, or predicts, or is evidenced by a variety of responses to some specified set of social objects or situations."²

The definitions of Murphy, Rosenberg and Green seem to imply that attitudes are objective in basis and are unchanging. This is evidenced by the use of the terms "set" and "staple". Kaplan, however, asserts that attitudes tend to be more subjective. He states that, although attitudes may be formed through careful study and analysis of the facts and through thoughtful decisions, they are more likely to be emotional predispositions to react toward a person, idea, or object with little regard for the realities of the situation.³

While these definitions and descriptions are more recent and add new terms, they are not substantially different from Allport's 1935 definition, the working definition adopted for the purposes of this study.

The object, or person, or set of social objects toward which an attitude is directed is known as the attitude "referent".⁴ This

¹M. Rosenberg, "Cognitive Structure and Attitudinal Affect", Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 53 (1956), p. 369.

²B. F. Green, "Attitude Measurement", in G. Lindzey, (ed.), Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol. 1, (Cambridge: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1954), p. 336.

³L. Kaplan, Foundations of Human Behavior, (New York: Harper and Row, 1965), p. 154.

⁴C. W. Sherif, et. al., Attitude and Attitude Change, (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1965), pp. 4-5.

is one of the characteristics which distinguishes attitude from other determining tendencies such as traits, motives, and values which, like attitude, are psychological conditions of readiness to respond and which are often confused with attitude.

In further distinguishing attitudes from traits Bonner states that an attitude is less generalized than a trait, it being a specific tendency to react to a specific referent, also, an attitude usually has a clear focus of directionality - either for or against its referent.¹

Newcomb presents two principal distinctions between an attitude and a motive: a motive is conceived as existing only when the body is being activated in some manner whereas an attitude persists even during periods of behavioral quiescence a wide range of motives may be aroused in an individual who has a simple general attitude toward a whole class of specific objects.²

The difference between a value and an attitude is discussed by Cooper and McGough.

"First, a value is an attitude which is dominated by the individual interpretation of the stimulus object's worth to him in the light of his goals. Second, a value system is the individual's overall life aspiration (what he really wants to achieve) which on one hand gives direction to his behavior and on the other hand is a frame of reference by which the worth of the stimulus object may be judged.

¹H. Bonner, Social Psychology: An Interdisciplinary Approach, (New York: The American Book Company, 1953), p. 177.

²T. M. Newcomb, "On the Definition of Attitude", in M. Jahoda and N. Warren, (eds.), Attitudes, (Baltimore: Penguin Books, Inc., 1966), pp. 22-24

In the value system sense, it is an elaborate and articulated organization of attitudes."¹

Sherif and Cantril summarize the criteria by which attitudes might be defined:

- "1. Attitudes always imply a subject-object relationship;
2. Attitudes are formed;
3. Attitudes have affective properties of varying degrees;
4. Attitudes are more or less enduring states of readiness;
5. Attitudes range in the number and variety of stimuli to which they are referred."²

Green views an attitude as a "set of behaviors" (universe).

He distinguishes three kinds of attitude universe corresponding to three types of individuals' responses to the attitude referent.

These are (a) elicited verbal attitudes given in response to questions, (b) spontaneous verbal attitudes such as might be expressed in conversation, (c) action attitudes which include both verbal and non-verbal behavior toward the attitude referent.³

Newcomb points out some of the contextual differences between psychologists' and sociologists' usage of the attitude concept. The main difference is one of emphasis. Whereas sociol-

¹J. B. Cooper and J. L. McGough, "Attitude and Related Concepts", in Jahoda and Warren, (eds.), Attitudes, pp. 26-31.

²M. Sherif and H. Cantril, "The Psychology of Attitudes", Psychological Review, 52 (1945), pp. 295-319.

³B. F. Green, "Attitude Measurement", p. 340.

ogists view attitudes in the context of the social values to which attitudes are directed (attitude referents) psychologists approach them in the context of other psychological characteristics of individuals.¹

Allport's differentiation of the psychological and sociological approaches to attitude concurs with Newcomb's. In reviewing the psychologists' emphasis Allport uses such terms as "preparedness", "sets", "obvious facts of consciousness", "feelings", "nervous bias", and "passive and active imagination" to refer to the various psychologist's usage of the concept of attitude.²

He concludes discussion of sociologists' usage of attitude with:

"Attitude forms the basis of all language and communication. In them is implicit all finished social behavior and through them practically all social adjustment is consummated ... public opinion is the highest form of collective attitudes."³

It will be noted that these differences are contextual rather than conceptual since both disciplines generally agree that attitudes involve a probability that a specified behavior will occur in a specified situation and that attitudes are psycholog-

¹T. M. Newcomb, "On the Definition of Attitude", p. 23.

²G. W. Allport, "Attitudes", p. 4.

³Ibid., p. 7.

ical states directed at sociological objects.¹

III. ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT

Discussing attitude measurement Sherif, et al. claim that attitudes can only be inferred from an individual's behavior, his words and deeds, since they cannot be observed directly. An attitude, they state, is a variable within the individual that affects his behavior in a pertinent situation together with other motives operative at the time, and the properties of the situation itself. Attitudes are thus inferred from characteristic or consistent patterns of behavior toward objects or, more usually, classes of objects.²

Thurstone maintains that attitudes can be measured by the subject's acceptance or rejection of opinions for or against a social value or issue. One cannot, however, imply that the subject will act in accordance with the opinions he has endorsed; that is, the measurement of attitudes expressed by one's opinions does not necessarily mean prediction of what he will do. One can only assume that it is of interest to know what people say they believe even if their actions are inconsistent with their professed opinions. Even though, in measurement, the subject may distort his real attitudes, one measures at least what the subject tries to make

¹W. M. Fuston, "Attitudes: A Note on the Concept and its Research Context", American Sociological Review, 7 (1942), pp. 856-857. D. T. Campbell, "The Indirect Measurement of Social Attitudes", Psychological Bulletin, 47 (1950), pp. 15-38. C. W. Sherif, et al., Attitude and Attitude Change, p. 311.

²C. W. Sherif, et al., Attitude and Attitude Change, p. 19.

other people believe he believes.¹

Operating under the assumption that attitudes can validly be measured, McNemar says that "measurement implies that only one characteristic at a time is being quantified." He goes on to point out that attitude scale scores are meaningful only when it is known that only one attitude dimension or continuum is being tested since only then can it be claimed that the individuals with similar scores are quantitatively similar in their attitudes toward a given social issue or value.²

Shaw and Wright refer to this characteristic of attitude scales as "unidimensionality". They state that a scale is not unidimensional if it measures more than one attitude or yields confusing results. Unidimensionality is achieved by the selection of scale items which elicit responses psychologically related to the attitude being measured.³

Another criterion by which scale items must be selected is pointed out by Selltiz et al. This requires that the individual items as well as the total scale differentiate among the individual respondents who are at different positions on the attitude continuum

¹L. L. Thurstone, "Attitudes Can Be Measured", in M. Fishbein, (ed), Attitude Theory and Measurement, (New York: John Wiley & Son, Inc., 1967), pp. 77-89.

²Q. McNemar, "Opinion Attitude Methodology", Psychological Bulletin, 43 (1946), pp. 289-374.

³M. E. Shaw and J. M. Wright, Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes, (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1967), pp. 20-21.

as well as intermediate items must be included in the scale.¹

Guttman and Schuman also stress this point. They refer to a neutral attitude or "zero point" and various degrees of agreement or disagreement with the items as "intensity of attitude."² Sherif refers to these same concepts as "latitudes of acceptance, rejection, and noncommitment".³

Three of the most common methods of attitude scale construction are (a) the method of equally appearing intervals developed by Thurstone⁴ (b) the scalogram analysis advanced by Guttman⁵ and (c) the method of summated ratings developed by Likert.⁶ The Likert method most nearly meets the characteristics of unidimensionality

¹C. Sellitz, et al., "Attitude Scaling", in Jahoda and Warren, (eds.), Attitudes: Selected Readings, (Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1966), pp. 305-324.

²L. Guttman and E. A. Schuman, "Intensity and a Zero-Point for Attitude Analysis", in M. Fishbein, (ed.), Attitude Theory and Measurement, pp. 267-276.

³Sherif, et al., Attitude and Attitude Change, p. 18-59.

⁴L. L. Thurstone, "Theory of Attitude Measurement", Psychology Bulletin, 36 (1929), pp. 222-241. See also L. L. Thurstone, The Measurement of Social Attitudes, (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929).

⁵L. Guttman, "A Basis for Scaling Qualitative Data", American Sociological Review, 9 (1944), pp. 139-150.

⁶R. A. Likert, "The Method of Constructing an Attitude Scale", in M. Fishbein, Attitude Theory and Measurement, pp. 90-95.

and intensity of attitude. Likert assumes that each of the statements that is used in the scale is a linear function of the same attitude dimension.¹

Assuming, therefore, that attitudes can validly be measured, a Likert type scale incorporating the characteristics above was adopted for this study.

IV. SOCIAL CLASS THEORY AND METHODOLOGY

Theories of social class run the gamut from external materialistic determinism to the purely subjective concept of class consciousness. Sjöberg outlines the views of those supporting both ends of the continuum. The first bases membership in a class on the relative achievements, possessions, authority, and power attached to membership according to a self identification with a certain group.²

Reissman states that Karl Marx was the earliest proponent of the economic theory of social class. For him social classes were the inevitable consequences of the economic and social forces that were energized by the capitalist system of production. The owners of the means of production constituted one class and those who did not constituted the other. This dichotomy was the source

¹P. Zimbardo and E. B. Ebbesen, Influencing Attitudes and Changing Behaviors, (Don Mills: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1969), pp. 123-128.

²G. Sjöberg, "Are Social Classes in America Becoming More Rigid?", American Sociological Review, 16 (1951), pp. 775-783.

of all social facts.¹

Max Weber, while basically agreeing with Marx's economic theories of social class, adds two other dimensions to the class concept - status and power. The former implies social distinctions based upon social honour or prestige while the latter refers to social or legal influence, both emanating from the social forms of society.²

H. L. Hodgkinson says that society confers status on its most qualified personnel for doing the most important jobs. To him, therefore, class is based upon the best people doing the most important jobs in a society. (There may be cases in which other than the best qualified occupy work positions. Hodgkinson calls this the "garbage factor" of a society.)³

Warner attributes class to a "social reality" that people within a community recognize. The people of a community generally agree as to where each other individual stands in the social hierarchy based upon socially superior and inferior positions.⁴

For the purposes of this study therefore a social class is

¹L. Reissman, Class in American Society, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1960), pp. 44-56. See also R. Bendix and S. M. Lipset, (eds.), Class, Status, and Power, Second Edition. (New York: The Free Press, 1966), pp.6-11.

²M. Weber, "Class, Status, and Party", in Bendix and Lipset, (eds.), Class, Status, and Power, pp. 21-28.

³H. L. Hodgkinson, Education, Interaction, and Social Change, (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), pp. 82-85.

⁴W. L. Warner, Yankee City, (New Haven, Conn: Yale University Press, 1963).

viewed as an occupational and economic condition to which society ascribes a relative amount of prestige and influence.

According to Reissman the most outstanding methodological problem in social class research is that of identifying classes by means of valid, reliable, and unequivocal measures which also make sense within a theoretical frame-work.¹

Three basic techniques of class identification have evolved and are in widespread use. The first is based on family possessions and spending habits, the second on the judgements of others, and the third on the occupation of the head of the household.

One of the earliest techniques used to determine the social class of an individual was the "livingroom scale" used by Chapin. Chapin assumed that the livingroom was the focal centre of family living and thus its contents and their condition (the latter to be judged by the investigator) would reflect the socio-economic status of the family.²

A refinement of Chapin's scale was presented by Gough who included in his "Home Index" such items as family education, vacationing and reading habits and excluded any evaluative judgements by the investigator.³ Gough eliminated Chapin's system of

¹L. Reissman, Class in American Society, p. 115.

²F. S. Chapin, Contemporary American Institutions, (New York: Harper and Bros., 1935)

³H. Gough, "A Short Social Status Inventory", Journal of Educational Psychology, 40 (1949), pp. 52-56.

scoring according to relative weights assigned to the items and replaced it with a simple summation of the number of "yes" answers given by the subjects.

An elite sociometry approach was employed by Kaufman in a study of a New York rural community¹ and by Warner in his study of Yankee City.² This procedure employs a panel of judges chosen from the community who rank everyone else in the community into as many categories as they feel necessary. Those falling into the same category are then considered to be of the same social status.

An even more subjective procedure for determining social class was used by Cantril³ and later by Centers.⁴ Based upon the assumption that everyone identifies with a social class, the respondents are asked to state the class with which he identifies.

Reissman states that "...occupation and occupational prestige have become symbols of class, not only in the scientific but in the popular main as well."⁵ This is supported by the statement of Hodge, Treiman, and Rossi to the effect that, since society's rewards

¹H. Kaufman, "Prestige Classes in a New York Rural Community", in Bendix and Lipset, (eds.), Class, Status, and Power, pp. 190-203.

²W. L. Warner, Yankee City.

³H. Cantril, "Identification With Social and Economic Classes", Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 88 (1943), pp. 74-88.

⁴H. Centers, The Psychology of Social Classes: A Study in Class Consciousness, (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1949).

⁵Reissman, Class in American Society, p. 145.

are distributed and power exercised through occupations, occupations become central to any study of social stratification.¹

Two general methods for employing the occupational technique as a class index have been developed. The first classifies occupations into a number of groups arranged hierarchically according to the judgements of the investigator. The second assigns prestige scores to the occupations according to the judgements of a sample of the population being investigated and then ranked according to their relative weights.²

The use of the first method has been associated with A. E. Edwards³ while variations have been used by Centers⁴ and Warner.⁵

Perhaps the best known scale of the second type is the North-Hatt Occupational Prestige Scale which assigns weights to ninety occupations on the basis of the judgements of three thousand judges.⁶ More familiar to Canadian researchers is the scale developed by B. R. Blishen in 1958 (revised in 1967) in which three hundred forty-three occupations are ranked on the basis of the years of

¹R. W. Hodge, D. J. Treiman, and P. H. Rossi, "A Comparative Study of Occupational Prestige", in Bendix and Lipset, (eds.), Class, Status, and Power, pp. 309-321.

²Ibid.

³A. E. Edwards, "Comparative Occupational Statistics for the United States", 16th Census, 1940, (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1943).

⁴Centers, Psychology of Social Class, p. 49.

⁵Warner, Yankee City, pp. 140-141.

⁶Reissman, Class in American Society, pp. 155-156.

formal education and the annual income of the average incumbent of the particular occupation¹ (See Appendix C). Blishen's population was all Canadian Workers over the age of fifteen years.

For several reasons the Blishen Scale was chosen for use in this study. Principally it was chosen because of the fact that it has been standardized for the Canadian population. Also influencing this decision was the ease of obtaining the necessary information from the subjects and the simplicity of scoring. The Blishen Scale has been frequently used in research in Newfoundland and it is expected that this will facilitate comparison of the findings of the present study with other local research findings.

V. SEX OF PARENT AND ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

Hyman, reporting the results of a National Opinion Research Center survey, presented evidence of differences in emphasis upon further education by sex as well as by social class. Of those surveyed, 74 per cent of the males and 85 per cent of the females of wealthy classes between the ages of 14 and 20 recommended college education. For males and females over the age of 40 these figures were 58 per cent and 73 per cent respectively. Among the males and females in the age group between 34 and 20 in the lower classes 42 per cent of the males and 49

¹B. R. Blishen, "The Construction and Use of an Occupational Class Scale", Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science, 23 (November 1958), pp. 519-531. See also B. R. Blishen, "A Socio-economic Index for Occupations in Canada", The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, 4 (1967), pp. 41-53.

per cent of the females felt that a college education was important while the corresponding figure for those over 40 in the lower classes was 29 per cent and 41 per cent respectively.¹ It will be noted that the percentage of females at each socio-economic and age level who recommend college education was higher than that of males.

Musgrove suggests that the best indicator of parental attitudes toward education is the frequency of their visits to schools. In this regard the mother scores higher than the father especially at the working class levels.² Musgrove does not state whether such visits were during "open house days" that is, during working hours when fathers might find it impossible to attend, or during "parents' nights" when either or both parents could reasonably visit the school. It has been the writer's experience, however, that the mother is the more frequent visitor to the school in either case. Both parents visit schools only infrequently while the father rarely visits the school alone.

Musgrove further suggests that a mother who has "married down" strives to compensate for her social decline through the educational achievements of her children and that the interest in education of working mothers is heightened by their exposure to the fact that higher education is required for the better jobs in the

¹Hyman, The Value Systems of Different Classes, pp. 491-493.

²Musgrove, The Family, Education, and Society, pp. 77-92.

labor market.¹

In the development of his "Parent Attitude Toward Education Scale" Medinnus tested the attitudes of thirty-four sets of parents toward their own educational experiences, their willingness to support the school in matters of discipline, policy, administration, and finance, and their evaluation of the importance of education. He found a relatively low level of agreement between the attitudes of the mothers and their husbands. He found also that there was little agreement between the mothers' attitudes and the teacher's assessment of their attitudes but did not find agreement at a fairly high level between fathers' attitudes and the teacher's assessment of their attitudes.²

These findings indicate that the mother takes a much more active interest in the education of the children than does the father of the family, that females place greater value on education and that there is some disagreement between the attitudes of the fathers and mothers within a family. The extent of this disagreement, however, does not warrant hypothesizing a zero correlation. Thus it is hypothesized that:

There is a significant positive relationship between the attitude scores of the mothers and fathers in the sample.

¹Musgrove, The Family, Education, and Society, pp. 77-92.

²G. R. Medinnus, "The Development of a Parent Attitude Toward Education Scale", Journal of Educational Research, 56 (October, 1962), pp. 100-103.

VI. FAMILY SIZE AND PARENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

As with religion and attitudes, the investigator found only brief references and no empirical studies which attempted to link family size and educational attitudes. Many researchers have, however, found relationships existing between family size and educational output.¹ These may be in part a function of parental attitudes toward education rather than of family size per se.

Floud found an inverse relationship between family size and success on grammar school placement examinations which could not be regarded simply as a function of the material environment of the homes from which the children came. It was found that, even when social class was held constant, the effect of family size could still be seen at work. Floud further states that children of large families score less well on the average on intelligence tests than children of small families even at the same socio-economic level.²

Zuckerman, Barrett, and Brageil, in studying the attitudes of parents toward the counselling of their children in a clinic situation, found that the age of the child, the number of children in the family and the sex of the children in the family were all

¹R. C. Noel, "Socio-economic Versus Educational Inputs as Related to Grade Six Arithmetic Achievement in Rural Newfoundland", (Unpublished Masters Thesis, Memorial University of Newfoundland, 1970). H. W. Kitchen, "A Preliminary Study of the Demographic and Socio-economic Factors in the Atlantic Provinces and Their Relationship to Measures of Educational Out-put", St. John's, 1967.

²Floud, Social Class and Educational Opportunity, p. 91.

significantly related to parental attitudes but that such relationships seemed to be a function of the relationship of these variables to the education of the mother.¹

These findings lead to two further hypotheses:

- (a) That there is a significant negative relationship between the attitude scores of the fathers in the sample and the number of children in their families.
- (b) That there is a significant negative relationship between the attitude scores of the mothers in the sample and the number of children in their families.

VII. SOCIAL CLASS AND ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

Hyman asserts that the existing system of social stratification is maintained, in part, by the lack of opportunity among the lower classes for adequate education and skilled training which might provide access to a better position. Hyman suggests an equally significant hindrance to mobility:

"...an intervening variable mediating the relationship between low position and lack of upward mobility is a system of beliefs and values within the lower class which in turn reduces the very voluntary

¹M. Zuckerman, Barrett, and Brageil, "The Attitudes of Parents of Child Guidance Cases", Child Development, 31 (1960), pp. 401-417. (That one is in a lower class thus appears to be the result of a vicious circle of circumstance. Lower class means lack of opportunity and lack of opportunity perpetuates low class.)

actions which would ameliorate their low positions.¹

This "system of beliefs and values" is reflected in the value which the lower classes place on education as being essential to upward mobility. Havighurst and Neugarten state that families of different social levels differ markedly in the attitudes that they hold toward education and the schools.

"Upper-class and upper-middle class adults are themselves better educated than adults of other classes; and they put greater value upon education for education's sake...Lower-middle and upper-lower classes, the common man group, tend to regard education as important, but mainly as it prepares children for vocational success. The lower-class, on the other hand, tend to regard education with skepticism and to view the school and its methods as being either contrary to its own values or of little worth."²

In a survey conducted by the National Opinion Research Center on a sample of 2500 adults and 500 youths of all social classes, 68 percent of those in the upper classes and only 39 percent of those in the lower classes recommended college education. When the sample was broken down according to occupation, education, and monthly rent paid, the same pattern emerged: the more skilled the occupation, the higher the education, and the greater the amount of rent paid, the greater the percentage recommending college education.³

¹H. H. Hyman, "The Value Systems of Different Classes", in Bendix and Lipset, (eds.), Class, Status, and Power, pp. 488-499

²R. J. Havighurst and B. L. Neugarten, Society and Education, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1957), p. 99. See also, F. Musgrove, The Family, Education, and Society, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1966), pp. 76-78.

³Hyman, "The Value Systems of Different Classes", p. 490.

Similar results were found by Hills who discovered that educationally relevant values differed from class to class. In a survey of two residential suburbs of Chicago, one classed as upper class and the other as lower class, Hills found that 95.6 per cent of the uppers and only 4.3 per cent of the lowers desired a college preparatory program for their children. Among parents of the upper class, 4.3 per cent would have been satisfied if their children received only a high school education while 60.8 per cent of the parents of the lower class would have tolerated this. Hills classified 82.6 per cent of the lower classes and 0.0 per cent of the upper classes as evidencing a lack of interest in their childrens' education whereas 65.2 per cent of the uppers and 8.6 per cent of the lowers were classified as evidencing a high degree of interest in the school work of their children.¹

Hills suggests that, even where there was agreement among members of the different classes as to the importance of education, there was disagreement as to why it is important; the upper classes preferring the school to stress the intellectual dimensions while the lower classes stressed the vocational and social dimensions.²

¹R. J. Hills, "The Relationship Between the Educational Expectations of Social Class Groups and the Role Expectations Within the Public High School", (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1961). See also H. H. Beers, "Rural Urban Differences: Some Evidence From the Public Opinion Polls", Rural Sociology, 18 (1953), pp. 1-11.

²Hills, "Educational Expectations of Classes and the Role Expectations of Public High Schools", p. 118.

Brookover quotes the results of a poll which found that parents who have only a high school or grade school education themselves value education as "a chance to get ahead in the world" much more than the college educated parents to the extent that the former mentioned this twice as frequently as the latter for their sons and three times as frequently for their daughters.¹

Stendler found parental attitudes toward school at the grade one level to differ along social lines in three of the four subject areas surveyed: (1) More parents of the higher socio-economic classes sent their children to pre-school. (2) More parents of the higher classes made a conscious effort to prepare their children for first grade. (3) Higher class parents attached greater importance to their child's first report card than did those of lower classes. (4) No social class differences were found in parental criticism of the school.²

Surveying a sample of 1286 educators and 2544 non-educators in 1959, Andrews found that the occupational level and the level of education of the head of the household were the best predictors of educational attitudes. The greater the amount of schooling and the higher the occupational rating the more likely the individual was to

¹W. B. Brookover, A Sociology of Education, (New York: The American Book Company, 1955), pp. 166-170.

²C. B. Stendler, "Social Class Differences in Parental Attitudes Toward School at the Grade One Level", Child Development, 22 (1951), p. 37.

favor the development of the intellect.¹

Class attitudes toward the value of education are also reflected in the relative number of children of all classes who drop out of school before graduation.² In his study of Elmtown, Hollingshead found that all the young people of Classes I and II (the upper of his five categories) were in school; that nine out of ten in Class III, six out of ten in Class IV, and only one out of nine in Class V, the lowest class, were in school. "We must conclude," wrote Hollingshead, "that the class to which a child belongs is a really significant factor in his relations with the school."³

An anomaly arises when one considers the findings of Sister Perpetua Kennedy who asked 110 Newfoundland drop-outs to select statements which best reflected their parents' attitudes toward their (the drop-outs') schooling. "Wanted me to graduate" was the first choice of 66.4 per cent of the drop-outs. A further 13.7 per cent chose as their first choice "were not educated themselves but did encourage me". Only 8.2 per cent chose "were in-

¹J. H. M. Andrews, "Public and Professional Opinions Regarding the Tasks of the Public Schools of Alberta", (Edmonton: Division of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, 1959).

²Havighurst and Neugarten, Society and Education, pp. 99-104.

³A. B. Hollingshead, Elmtown's Youth, (New York: Science Editions, Inc., 1961), p. 330. See also Early Leaving, (London: H. M. Stationery Office, 1954), p. 36.

different and left the choice to me" as their first choice while another 8.2 per cent selected this as their second choice. The most common reason given by the sample for dropping out was their lack of interest. These drop-outs were the children of semi-skilled and unskilled workers of whom 60.9 per cent of the fathers and 49.1 per cent of the mothers had less than grade six education.¹

On the basis of the foregoing, there is ample evidence to suspect that in the City of St. John's, as elsewhere, the attitudes of parents toward education are partially a function of their socio-economic levels. It is hypothesized therefore that:

(a) There is a significant positive relationship between the attitude scores of the fathers in the sample and their socio-economic level.

(b) There is a significant positive relationship between the attitude scores of the mothers in the sample and their socio-economic level.

VIII. MOTHERS' EDUCATION AND ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

Zuckerman found that a number of family variables were related to the attitudes which mothers had toward their children's being counselled in a clinic situation but that these variables seemed to be related only as a function of the education of the mother.²

Adnrews suveryed a sample of 3800 educators and parents and found that level of education along with socio-economic level

¹ Sister Mary Perpetua Kennedy, "A Cultural Analysis of the Drop-out Problem in the Province of Newfoundland", (Unpublished Master's Thesis, Catholic University of America, Washington, 1966).

² M. Zuckerman, Barrett, and Brageil, "The Attitudes of Parents of Child Guidance Cases", Child Development, 31 (1960), pp. 401-417.

were the best predictors of educational attitudes. The higher the level of education the more likely the individual was to favour intellectual development.¹

Dale and Griffiths found that the educational background of the parents, especially the mother, was related to the educational achievements of their children. They attribute this to the fact that the more highly educated parents had a fuller understanding of what was required of them as parents of school children as well as a fuller understanding of the school programs and what was required of their children-students. They were therefore in a better position to help and encourage their children.²

Floud found that the mothers of successful school children were much better educated themselves than were the mothers of the unsuccessful children, and that the better educated mothers were, to a marked degree, more interested in and ambitious for the educational futures of their children. They visited their children's schools more frequently and showed a clearer awareness of the importance of selective secondary education. The more highly educated mothers also favoured a longer school attendance period than did the less educated mothers.³ It is therefore hypothesized:

That there is a significant positive relationship between the attitude scores of the mothers in the sample and the number of years of their formal education.

¹Andrews, "Opinions Regarding the Tasks of Public Schools in Alberta".

²R. R. Dale and S. Griffiths, Down Stream, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965), pp. 14-26.

³Floud, Social Class and Educational Opportunity, p. 91.

IX. RELIGION AND ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

In the literature surveyed by the investigator only brief references were found which attempted to associate educationally relevant attitudes and religious beliefs. A number of writers, however, found that there were relationships between religious affiliation and educational achievement. It is this writer's conjecture that these relationships could reasonably be between educational achievement and attitudes toward education held by the respective religious groups rather than between achievement and religion per se.

Nottingham, in discussing attitudinal differences between Protestants and Catholics, discusses the traits of "activism, universalism, and individualism" as being especially strong among Protestants. These traits lay emphasis on the duty of all men to control and improve their world. It would thus seem reasonable to conclude that Protestants would lay special value on education as an instrument in the attainment of that goal.¹

Dittes reports a number of studies in which religion was found to be related to a wide range of social attitudes. Also reported are studies finding attitudinal differences between Catholics, Protestants, and Jews as well as studies finding no differences. Dittes attributes such differences as were found to ethnic and class variables.

The results of a poll by the American Institute of Public

¹F. K. Nottingham, Religion: A Sociological View, (New York: Random House, Inc., 1971), pp. 256-260.

²J. E. Dittes, "Psychology of Religion", in G. Lindzey, (ed.), The Handbook of Social Psychology, (2nd. ed. Don Mills: Addison Wesley Publishing Co., 1969), pp. 602-648.

Opinion conducted in 1945 are quoted by Hoult. This poll found wide disparities between the educational achievements of members of various religious denominations: 22 per cent of Episcopalians, 22 per cent of Presbyterians, 12 per cent of Methodists, 7 per cent of Catholics, and 6 per cent of Baptists achieved some degree of college education.¹ Hoult suggests that, while the percentages may have changed since 1945, it is unlikely that the relative positions of the groups have changed. In discussing the relative educational levels of Catholics and Protestants Hoult points to studies showing that Protestants usually achieve more and better quality education. While emphasizing that no causal relationship has been proven to exist between religion and educational achievement, Hoult suggests a "certain something having the character of tradition breaking freedom of thought or independent mind which apparently underlies both Protestantism and the educational standards with which it is often associated."²

Floud, in a study of the social factors associated with success or failure on the grammar school placement examinations in Great Britain, found an inverse relationship between success on the

¹T. F. Hoult, The Sociology of Religion, (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1958), pp. 242-243, 344. While the possible influences of socio-economic levels are readily acknowledged here, religious denomination should not be discussed as an influencing factor until empirical evidence is obtained. Although non-attendance at university could be a function of socio-economic level, it could also reflect a low value being placed on university education.

²Ibid.

placement examinations and family size was much less marked for children of Catholic families even though about three quarters of those families came from the unskilled working class.¹

Andrews, in the only empirical investigation including religion and educational attitudes found by the investigator, found that age, race, and religion were reliable predictors of educational attitudes. These, however, were found to be less reliable as predictors than education and occupation.²

These findings, while indicating a strong relationship between socio-economic level and religion, give reason to suspect that there is a dynamic relationship between religious affiliation and attitudes toward education. Thus it is hypothesized that:

The correlations between fathers' and mothers' attitude scores and the social variables of socio-economic level, family size, and mothers' education will be different for Catholic and Protestant parents.

¹J. E. Floud, Social Class and Educational Opportunity, Toronto: William Heinmann, Ltd., 1956), pp. 91ff.

²Andrews, Opinions Regarding the Tasks of Public Schools in Alberta. This concurs with the statement by Havighurst and Neugarten that, while important differences in family patterns are due to ethnic, regional, and religious backgrounds, it is the social class differences that are the most meaningful for the school. See Havighurst and Neugarten, Society and Education, p. 99.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the methods used to test the hypotheses of the study, namely that parental attitudes toward education are related to socio-economic level, the sex of the parent, the number of children in the family, the religious affiliation of the parents, and the level of education of the mother. Separate sections deal with the instruments used, the sample, the collection of the data, and the methods used to analyse the data.

II. THE INSTRUMENTS

In order to collect the necessary data a two-part questionnaire was prepared by the investigator and distributed to a sample of parents in the City of St. John's. Part I of the questionnaire asked for the occupation of the father of the family, the number of years of formal education of the mother, the number of children in the family, the religious denomination of the family, the number of years that the family had lived in St. John's and, if the family had lived for less than five years in St. John's, the previous town or city of residence. The last question was used to separate the rural and urban oriented subjects since respondents who had recently moved to St. John's from rural areas were not included in the study.

Part II of the questionnaire was an attitude-toward-education scale adapted by the investigator from one originally used by Rundquist and Sletto.¹ This original was a Likert type scale containing twenty-two items. The original subjects used in the construction of the scale were 2882 persons drawn from college students, high school teachers, and members from classes for the unemployed and welfare recipients. The developers reported split half reliabilities of .82 and .83 and test-retest reliabilities of .84 and .85 for men and women respectively. They also report high correlations with other scales designed to measure attitudes on the same continuum which they take as a measure of concurrent validity. The original scale appears in Appendix B.

Although Shaw and Wright state that none of the items in the original scale are "...so seriously out of date as to require alteration or elimination"² preliminary tests by the investigator, using eleven graduate students in Educational Administration at Memorial University of Newfoundland as subjects, led to the elimination of eleven of the original twenty-two items and the addition of two items dealing with post-secondary education resulting in a final scale of thirteen items.

¹E. A. Rundquist and R. F. Sletto, Personality in the Depression, (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1936) Reprinted in part in M. E. Shaw and J. M. Wright, Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes, (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1967), pp. 233-234.

²Personality in the Depression is out of print and could not be obtained from the publisher. Information here is from Shaw and Wright.

A random sample of twenty-two sets of parents who were not part of the main sample used in the study participated in a test-retest for the establishment of reliability for the attitude scale. The correlation coefficient of reliability was .93. (See Appendix J)

The results of an item discrimination analysis to determine the power of each item to discriminate between those with positive and negative attitudes toward education is shown in Table I. For this analysis the means of the top eight scorers and the bottom eight scorers in the second testing of the test-retest were compared and the items ranked according to the extent of their discrimination between high and low scorers.

TABLE I
ITEM DISCRIMINATION ANALYSIS OF THE
MODIFIED RUNDQUIST AND SLETO SCALE

Item Number	Means of highest 8 scorers	Means of lowest 8 scorers	Difference of means	Rank of Discrimination
1	4.63	3.63	1.0	11.5
2	4.75	3.75	1.0	11.5
3	4.38	3.88	.50	13.0
4	4.25	2.75	1.50	5.0
5	4.50	3.38	1.12	10.0
6	4.88	2.88	2.00	3.0
7	5.00	3.63	1.37	6.0
8	4.50	3.25	1.25	7.0
9	4.88	2.75	2.13	2.0
10	4.88	3.75	1.13	8.5
11	4.63	3.50	1.13	8.5
12	5.00	2.63	2.37	1.0
13	4.75	2.88	1.87	4.0

Maximum possible differentiation = 4.0

Before the scale was used in the test-retest for reliability it was submitted to a panel of five faculty members in the Faculty of Education at Memorial University of Newfoundland in the Departments of Educational Administration, Curriculum and Instruction, and Educational Foundations. Each faculty member was asked to point out any statements which he or she felt did not reflect a value, positive or negative, toward education, and to suggest aspects of education not covered by the scale for which parents might or might not value education. Only two or three suggestions were made by the members of the panel, therefore further modifications were deemed unnecessary.

The Blishen Scale was used as the measure of socio-economic level of the subjects.¹ This scale is standardized for all Canada and has been widely used in social research in Newfoundland. In spite of a number of limitations it remains the one widely used socio-economic scale in use in Canada today.

Its most serious limitation, in the opinion of the investigator, is the fact that occupational rank, although it is based on the income and educational level of the average incumbent of that occupation across Canada, fails to consider other factors contributing to socio-economic level. Among these other contributing factors are working wives, working children, family size, inheritances, regional costs of living, and wise or unwise investments. These, however, are not reflected by the occupation of the head of

¹See Appendix C.

the household.

Another limitation is the occupational disparities existing across Canada. A farmer in Alberta farming two thousand acres of land enjoys a much higher socio-economic level than does a Newfoundlander farming only thirty acres yet these are given the same socio-economic score by the Blishen Scale. However, this is not a serious limitation when used on a regionally homogenous sample.

III. THE SAMPLE

The sample consisted of one hundred thirty sets of parents of grade six students in the City of St. John's. The parents of grade six students were chosen in the hope of getting parents of median age who were also likely to have children in grades above and below grade six. Grade six is also the last pre-dropout grade and, moreso than subsequent grades, draws pupils from the whole socio-economic range of the community.

In May of 1970, lists of all schools in St. John's which taught grade six were obtained from the school boards in the area. The appropriate schools were then contacted by the investigator, the number of grade six students noted, and a cumulative total compiled.

Using a table of random numbers, one hundred thirty numbers were drawn and matched with the schools in the cumulative total. The numbers were then transferred to match pupil numbers on the class registers in each school. The schools were then visited by the investigator and the addresses of the pupils corresponding to the

randomly selected numbers were noted.

Two schools were omitted from the study since their populations were drawn predominantly from areas outside the City of St. John's. One other school was omitted when the principal declined to give the necessary information.

IV. THE COLLECTION OF DATA

On May 29, 1970, a letter was mailed to the parents in the sample explaining the nature and purpose of the study and asking their cooperation. (See Appendix D)

On June 2 and 3 packages containing a detailed instruction sheet, one copy of Part I, two copies of Part II (one each for the father and the mother), one copy of Part III, and a coded return envelope were personally delivered to each household in the sample. Further information and explanations were given at that time.

During this period it became apparent that the records kept by the schools were somewhat erroneous since single ladies' apartments, vacant lots, condemned buildings and dwellings occupied by elderly couples were among the addresses given. Seven such cases were found. In addition five declined to accept the questionnaires without stating reasons. The total number of questionnaires delivered was one hundred eighteen, including those placed in mail boxes.

Between June 4 and June 19 only thirty-five questionnaires had been returned. A follow-up letter on June 19 stimulated a further ten returns. On July 2 and 3 as many as possible of those who had not responded were contacted by telephone and six more

returns were received between that time and July 15 when a second follow-up letter was mailed. On July 24 after only seven more returns had been received a third letter was written to the sixty sets of parents who had not responded. In that letter they were told that the investigator would personally call to pick up the questionnaires and were asked to have them ready at that time. Only ten were able to be collected when the households were visited on July 29 and 30.

With such a low response rate, statistical bias seems possible. However, as it shown in Appendix I Table XV, the occupational structure of the respondents very closely approximated that of the total occupational structure of St. John's. This was sufficient to allay fears of non-response bias in the socio-economic level of the respondents.

Recent figures giving the breakdown of the population of St. John's by religious denomination are not available at the time of writing. However, according to the Dominion Bureau of Statistics 1966 Census figures, 51 per cent of the population of St. John's was Roman Catholic. Forty-eight per cent belonged to Protestant denominations and one per cent belonged to Non-Christian religions.¹ Among the respondents to the questionnaire 60 per cent were Catholics and 40 per cent were of Protestant denominations. Since separate

¹From Dominion Bureau of Statistics Census 1966. Information supplied via telephone from St. John's office.

statistical analyses are to be computed for Catholics and Protestants
this disparity was not deemed great enough to warrant another
sampling.

CHAPTER IV

STATISTICAL ANALYSES

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports the results of the testing of the hypotheses established in Chapter II. It was predicted that statistically significant relationships would exist between the attitude scores and social characteristics of fathers and mothers in the sample as well as between the attitude scores of the fathers and the mothers themselves. In addition, it was predicted that the proposed relationships would be different for Protestant and Catholic families -- at least in degree if not in kind.

Throughout the study the $+.10$ level of confidence is used to test the level of significance of correlations. While the $+.05$ confidence level is customarily used in social research it is the writer's opinion that a greater margin of error must be allowed in the present study. Among other things, attitudes, the criterion variable used in the study, are highly subjective and, at best, can only be crudely quantified. The $+.10$ level of confidence will thus take greater account of the possibility of error than would the $+.05$ level.

Two analytical techniques were employed in this study: correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis.

These coefficients were obtained to describe the relationship between the predictor variables of family size, education and socioeconomic level with the mothers' and fathers' scores on the attitude scale. The Product Moment coefficients are presented first and are followed by the partial correlation coefficients. The latter coefficients describe the relationship between one independent variable and the dependent variable, while the effect of all other independent variables is being held constant.

The first step in the multiple regression analysis was to prepare an intercorrelation matrix which included all variables in the study. Using these correlations, multiple correlation coefficients were computed by successively taking into account the effect of each predictor variable until all predictor variables were in the equation. Separate coefficients were computed for each of six groups: all fathers, all mothers, Catholic fathers, Catholic mothers, Protestant fathers, and Protestant mothers.

The purpose of using the multiple regression technique was to find the relative contribution of each of the predictors in the prediction of the criterion variable. Since it was known that socioeconomic level was an important variable, this was entered first and allowed to explain as much variance as possible. The others were then entered into the equation in the descending order of the value of the correlation of each independent variable had with the criterion. As each independent variable was entered the coefficient of multiple correlation was computed to show the importance of the

addition of each successive variable.¹

II. FATHERS' AND MOTHERS' ATTITUDES²

Hypothesis I predicted that there would be a significant positive correlation between the attitude scores of the fathers and mothers in the sample. A further hypothesis predicted that such correlations would be significantly different for Catholic and Protestants.

Analysis revealed a product moment correlation of +.65 between the scores of all mothers and fathers in the sample. This correlation is significant at the +.10 level and indicates that mothers and fathers in the same family are likely to place a similar value on education.

This finding does not negate the conclusion of Hyman, Musgrove, and Medinnus reported in Chapter II.³ They suggested that mothers place a somewhat higher value on education than do fathers. It is quite possible that this is sometimes true among parents in the present sample, since a correlation of +.65 does not indicate complete agreement.

In Chapter II a number of research findings regarding the relationship between religion and attitude were discussed. These findings included the suggestion that Protestants are more individ-

¹ All computations were done on the IBM 360/70 computer of the Newfoundland and Labrador Computer Services, Ltd. using the regression subprogram or the Statistical Package For The Social Sciences, by Norman Nie.

² Although a t-test revealed no significant differences on the mean attitude scores of fathers and mothers in the same family, the suggestion that mothers on the whole tend to place a higher value on education than do fathers, seemed sufficient to justify separate analysis.

³ Pages 29-30

ualistic in their thinking than Catholics. That is, Protestants are less likely to be influenced by the thinking of others in their outlook on life. If this is true, we would expect Catholic parents in the sample to exhibit greater agreement in their attitudes toward education than Protestant parents. In fact, when the sample was divided into Protestant and Catholic groups, it was found that the scores of Catholic parents correlated more highly (.75) than those of Protestants (.48).

Therefore, the hypothesis predicting different agreement levels for Catholic and Protestant parents is supported. However, as can be seen in Appendix I the mean socio-economic level of Protestant families in the sample was higher than that of Catholics. A T-Test showed this difference to be a significant one. In addition, a significant correlation of .20 was found to exist between socio-economic level and religion. Thus, one should not discount the possibility that the lower degree of correlation among Protestant parents is a function of socio-economic level. It is also possible that if Catholics are more easily influenced by the thinking of others, including their spouse, this would increase their level of agreement.

III. MOTHERS' ATTITUDES AND FAMILY SIZE

Chapter II reported a number of studies which found relationships existing between family size and the educational achievement of children. Even when controlling for the material environments of the home, these relationships were still found to exist. It

was suggested that these relationships were a function of the attitudes of the parents toward education. That is, parents of larger families would have less positive attitudes toward education. If this were true, the size of the family would affect the educational achievements of the children indirectly through the attitudes of the parents toward education. Hypothesis II predicted that there would be a negative correlation between the attitude scores of the mothers in the sample and the number of children in the family. Since Protestants generally have smaller families than Catholics, it was hypothesized that the correlations for each group would be different. (See Appendix I, Table XII.)

For all mothers in the sample, the correlation between attitude scores and the number of children in the family was found to be $-.36$. (See Table II) This is a statistically significant correlation, and indicates that mothers with more children tend to place a lower value on education than mothers with smaller families. Thus, Hypothesis II is supported.

When the sample was subdivided into Protestant and Catholic families, it was found that the correlation between the mothers' attitude score and the number of children in the family was $-.37$ for Catholics and $-.30$ for Protestants. Statistically this difference is negligible. Therefore, the number of children in the family is equally related to the attitude toward education among both Protestant and Catholic mothers.

The negative correlation between the number of children in

TABLE II
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT ZERO
ORDER COEFFICIENTS

	MA	FA	SEL	ME	NC	REL
MA	*					
FA	.65 ⁺	*				
SEL	.42 ⁺	.33 ⁺	*			
ME	.37 ⁺	.11	.40 ⁺	*		
NC	-.36 ⁺	-.09	-.30 ⁺	-.40 ⁺	*	
REL	.05	.08	-.20 ⁺	-.08	.24 ⁺	*

MA...Mothers' Attitude ME...Mothers' Education
 FA...Fathers' Attitude NC...Number of Children
 SEL...Socio-economic Level REL...Religion
⁺Indicates significance at or beyond the .10 level.

the family and the mothers' attitude may be due to a very practical consideration: the cost of education. A large number of children may eventually cause a feeling to develop which holds that education itself is not worth the additional sacrifice required of the parents.

IV. FATHERS' ATTITUDES AND FAMILY SIZE

Following the rationale established for mothers, Hypothesis III predicted a negative correlation between the attitudes of the fathers in the sample and the number of children in their families. It was also predicted that the correlations would be different for Catholic and Protestant fathers. Again, this hypothesis is based on the average relative family sizes of the two religious groups.

For all fathers in the sample the correlation between their attitudes toward education and the number of children in their families was $-.09$. (See Table II) This correlation is of negligible size and is not significant at the $+.10$ level of confidence. Little support is thus found for the hypothesis that fathers' attitudes are related to family size.

When socio-economic level was controlled, the first order partial correlation between fathers' attitude and family size was $+.09$, only slightly more positive than the zero order correlation between the same variables. This indicates that, regardless of socio-economic level, there is little relationship between fathers' attitudes toward education and family size.

For Catholic fathers only the correlation between attitude and family size was $-.06$, and for Protestant fathers the correlation was $-.22$. (See Tables III and IV) Neither of these correlations is significant at the $+.10$ level.

In considering the difference between the size of the correlations for fathers and mothers one might consider that, while it is the father who pays the bill, the mother is usually the one who is left with the detailed care, guidance and informal education of the children. These are heavy and often onerous responsibilities, and therefore we might expect the mothers' attitudes toward education (rather than the fathers') to be influenced more heavily by the number of children in the family. In other words, because the father is often more detached from the every day details of the children's education, his value of education is less likely to be affected by

TABLE III
ZERO ORDER CORRELATIONS FOR
PROTESTANT FAMILIES ONLY

	Mothers' Attitude	Fathers' Attitude
Mothers' Attitude	*	
Fathers' Attitude	.48 ⁺	*
Socio-economic Level	.54 ⁺	.33 ⁺
Mothers' Education	.59 ⁺	.14 ⁺
Number of Children	-.30 ⁺	-.22

TABLE IV
ZERO ORDER CORRELATIONS FOR
CATHOLIC FAMILIES ONLY

	Mothers' Attitude	Fathers' Attitude
Mothers' Attitude	*	
Fathers' Attitude	.75 ⁺	*
Socio-economic Level	.38 ⁺	.43 ⁺
Mothers' Education	.26 ⁺	.21 ⁺
Number of Children	-.37 ⁺	-.06

⁺Indicates significance at or beyond the .10 level.

the presence of more children.

V. FATHERS' ATTITUDES AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL

In Chapter II evidence was presented supporting the contention that social class has a great effect on social attitudes, including attitudes toward education. Research has consistently shown that education is both valued and pursued by people in higher social classes more than by those of low socio-economic levels. Hypothesis IV predicted that there would be a significant positive correlation between the attitude scores of the fathers in the sample and their socio-economic level. The literature presented in Chapter II also indicated that attitudes toward education also varied with religion. However, since it has also been established that religious affiliation in our sample is related to social class differences, (See Table II) religion will be controlled to see if socio-economic differences still remain. If a socio-economic difference still remains after controlling for religious affiliation it will be concluded that it is primarily social class which influences the fathers' attitudes.

For all fathers in the sample, the correlation between attitudes toward education and socio-economic level (as measured by the Blisshen Scale) was +.33. (See Table II) This is statistically significant and indicates that, in general, the higher the socio-economic level of the father the more positive was his attitude toward education.

When the sample was divided into Protestant and Catholic families it was found that the correlation between the attitude scores of the Catholic fathers and their socio-economic level was somewhat higher (+.43) than for Protestant fathers (+.33). (See Tables III and IV) These are both statistically significant and suggest that while attitude toward education is affected by socio-economic level in both groups, the relationship is more pronounced for Catholics than for Protestants.¹

Partial correlations were computed to assess the independent effects of both religion and socio-economic level on fathers' attitude. With socio-economic level held constant, the correlation between fathers' attitude and religion rose from +.08 to +.17. With religion held constant the correlation between attitude and socio-economic level rose from +.33 to +.36. Considering the relative values of the original correlations these indicated that relative socio-economic level was a stronger predictor of attitude than was religion itself. Indeed, the socio-economic-level-religion relationship seems to attenuate somewhat the true relation between religion and attitude toward education, but even so, the socio-economic-level-attitude relationship seems to be more important. The higher correlation for Catholic fathers thus appears somewhat contradictory in that Catholics in the sample had a significantly lower socio-

¹Since most Catholics have an average socio-economic level lower than most Protestants, those Catholics who do find themselves in a high socio-economic level are in a minority. Therefore, they may react by assuming the attitudes and beliefs of their minority status even more strongly than high socio-economic level Protestants. It is a way of affirming their position and reducing cognitive dissonance.

economic score than did Protestants. Perhaps the closer association and mutual influence of Catholic mothers' and fathers' attitude scores is a factor here. The higher correlation between socio-economic level and attitude for Catholic fathers may be partially a function of Catholic mothers' attitude.

VL MOTHERS' ATTITUDES AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL

Using the rationale established for hypothesizing relationships between fathers' attitudes and socio-economic level, Hypothesis V predicted a significant correlation between the attitude scores of the mothers in the sample and their socio-economic level. It was also expected that different correlations would be found for Protestant and Catholic families.

For all mothers in the sample the correlation between their attitude scores and socio-economic level was $+ .42$. (See Table II) This is statistically significant and suggests that, like fathers, mothers' attitudes toward education were influenced by their social class level.

When the sample was divided into Protestant and Catholic groups it was found that the correlation between attitude and socio-economic level for Catholic mothers was $+ .26$, while for Protestant mothers the corresponding coefficient was $+ .54$. (See Tables III and IV) These are both statistically significant and suggest that Protestant mothers' attitudes are more closely dependent on their socio-economic level than are those of Catholic mothers.

As in the case of fathers, partial correlations, alternately

holding constant religion and socio-economic level, were computed for mothers. With religion held constant the correlation between attitude and socio-economic level rose from $+0.42$ to $+0.44$. With socio-economic level held constant the correlation between attitude and religion rose from $+0.05$ to $+0.15$. Again, considering the size of the original correlations, these suggest that socio-economic level is a stronger predictor of attitude toward education than is religion.

VII. MOTHERS' ATTITUDES AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Chapter II reported a number of studies which had found level of education to be related to attitudes toward education. As might be expected, the higher the level of education, the more positive the attitudes toward education. Studies were also cited which had found mothers' education to be related to pupil achievement. It was hypothesized that this latter relationship was a function of mothers' attitude rather than of level of education per se. Consequently, hypothesis VI predicted a significant positive correlation between mothers' attitude scores and the number of years of the mothers' education. It was also expected that the correlations would be different for Catholic and Protestant mothers.

For the entire sample, the correlation between the attitude scores of the mothers and the number of years of their formal education was $+0.37$. (See Table II) This is a statistically significant correlation, indicating that those mothers with a higher level of education themselves tend to have more positive attitudes toward education.

For Protestant mothers in the sample the correlation between attitude and level of education was +.49 while for Catholic mothers it was +.26. These are both significant at the +.10 level and indicate that, while attitude is related to education for both Protestant and Catholic mothers, the relationship is stronger for Protestant. Again, we expect that the lower correlation for Catholic mothers is partially due to the greater influence which the Catholic father has on his wife's attitudes.

VIII. SUMMARY OF ZERO ORDER CORRELATIONS

Hypotheses I, II, IV, V, and VI were supported by the correlation coefficients presented. Hypothesis III (predicting relationships between fathers' attitudes and family size) was not supported for the sample as a whole. However, a significant relationship between these variables was found for Catholic fathers.

Significantly different correlation coefficients were found for Catholics and Protestants on Hypotheses I, V, and VI. These suggested that the attitudes toward education of fathers and mothers in Catholic families are more likely to be affected by each other than are spouses' attitudes in Protestant families (Hypothesis I). Furthermore, the relationship between mothers' attitudes and family size and between mothers' attitudes and level of education is significantly higher for Protestants than for Catholics. Finally, an analysis of partial correlation coefficients suggested that socioeconomic level is a more important factor in predicting attitudes than is religion for both fathers and mothers.

IX. MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Although general support was found for the six major hypotheses, the high degree of intercorrelation among the variables made it difficult to determine which variables were most important. Therefore, to assess the relative importance of each independent variable, mothers' and fathers' attitudes were regressed on socio-economic level, spouses' attitude, mothers' education and the number of children in the family.

Since socio-economic level was very highly correlated with mothers' and fathers' attitude, it was entered first into the regression equation so that it might explain as much of the variance as possible before the other variables were entered.

Mothers' Attitudes

Table V shows the results of the regression for mothers' attitude scores. As the table indicates, the attitude of the father is the strongest single predictor of mothers' attitudes. Even after the socio-economic level of the family has explained as much as it could, fathers' attitude explains another ten per cent of the variance. Although mothers' education adds little to the variance after socio-economic level and fathers' attitudes it, along with the number of children in the family are still valuable predictors of mothers' attitude toward education. Together these four variables account for 51 percent of the variations in mothers' attitudes.

TABLE V

SUMMARY OF REGRESSION OF MOTHERS' ATTITUDES
ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL, FATHERS' ATTITUDES,
LEVEL OF EDUCATION, AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN

	R	R ²	R ² Change	Beta
Socio-economic Level	.42	.18	.18	.13
Fathers' Attitudes	.68	.46	.28	.55
Mothers' Education	.71	.50	.04	.18
Number of Children	.72	.51	.01	-.12

Protestant Mothers' Attitudes. Table VI compares the relative impact of the predictor variables on Protestant mothers' attitudes toward education. While fathers' attitudes and mothers' education add little to the total variance after socio-economic level, they remain relatively strong predictors of attitude. Thus socio-economic level, fathers' attitude, and mothers education are roughly equally strong predictors of mothers' attitude while the number of children in the family of the Protestant family seem to have little to do with her attitudes toward education.

Catholic Mothers' Attitudes. As is indicated by Table VII the importance of each of the independent variables is quite different for Catholic mothers than for Protestant mothers. For Catholic mothers almost all of the variance is explained by the attitudes of the father. The number of children in the family and mothers' education contribute little on their own. Thus while socio-economic level,

TABLE VI

SUMMARY OF REGRESSION OF PROTESTANT MOTHERS'
ATTITUDES ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL
FATHERS' ATTITUDES, LEVEL OF
EDUCATION AND NUMBER
OF CHILDREN

	R	R ²	R ² Change	Beta
Socio-economic Level	.54	.29	.29	.26
Fathers' Attitudes	.63	.39	.10	.34
Mothers' Education	.68	.46	.07	.30
Number of Children	.68	.46	.00	-.03

TABLE VII

SUMMARY OF REGRESSION OF CATHOLIC MOTHERS' ATTITUDES
ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL, FATHERS' ATTITUDES
LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND NUMBER
OF CHILDREN

	R	R ²	R ² Change	Beta
Socio-economic Level	.37	.14	.14	.05
Fathers' Attitudes	.75	.57	.43	.68
Mothers' Education	.78	.62	.01	.03
Number of Children	.78	.61	.04	-.20

fathers' attitudes, and mothers' education are roughly equal predictors of Protestant mothers' attitude, Catholic mothers' attitudes are strongly related to fathers' attitude and, to a lesser degree, to the number of children in the family.

Fathers' Attitudes.

As Table VIII shows, mothers' attitude scores are the most important contributors to the attitude scores of the father and account for an additional 29 percent of the variance after socio-economic level has accounted for all it can. Socio-economic level is related to fathers' attitudes to a lesser degree, with mothers' education and the number of children in the family being related to fathers' attitude toward education only to a slight degree.

TABLE VIII

SUMMARY OF REGRESSION OF FATHERS' ATTITUDES ON
SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL, MOTHERS' ATTITUDES,
MOTHERS' EDUCATION AND NUMBER
OF CHILDREN

	R	R ²	R ² Change	Beta
Socio-economic Level	.37	.14	.14	.14
Mothers' Attitudes	.66	.43	.29	.63
Mothers' Education	.66	.44	.01	.09
Number of Children	.66	.44	.00	.02

Protestant Fathers' Attitudes. Table IX shows that after socio-economic level had explained all of the variance in Protestant fathers' attitudes that it could, mothers' attitudes were entered into the equation and accounted for 13 percent more. Mothers' education and the number of children in the family added only slightly to the total variance explained. Mothers' attitude, therefore, is the strongest predictor of Protestant fathers' attitudes toward education with socio-economic level and wives' education being lesser predictors.

TABLE IX

SUMMARY OF REGRESSION OF PROTESTANT FATHERS'
ATTITUDES ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL, WIVES'
ATTITUDES, NUMBER OF CHILDREN,
AND WIVES' EDUCATION

	R	R ²	R ² Change	Beta
Socio-economic Level	.33	.11	.11	.14
Mothers' Attitudes	.49	.24	.13	.48
Mothers' Education	.51	.26	.02	-.18
Number of Children	.51	.26	.00	-.07

Catholic Fathers' Attitudes. As is indicated in Table X socio-economic level has approximately the same explanatory power for Catholic fathers' attitudes as for Protestant fathers' attitudes. The beta coefficients are +.17 and +.14 respectively. Mothers' attitudes, however, are much more important in explaining variations

in Catholic fathers' attitudes than for Protestant fathers. While mothers' education and the number of children in the family are well below socio-economic level and mothers' attitudes in their explanatory power, their relative positions are the reverse of those of Protestant fathers. That is, among Protestants in the sample, the education of the mother in the family is a more important predictor of fathers attitude than is the number of children. The opposite is true among Catholic families in the sample.

TABLE X
SUMMARY OF REGRESSION OF CATHOLIC FATHERS'
ATTITUDES ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL, WIVES'
ATTITUDES, NUMBER OF CHILDREN,
AND WIVES' EDUCATION

	R	R ²	R ² Change	Beta
Socio-economic Level	.43	.19	.19	.17
Mothers' Attitudes	.77	.60	.41	.71
Mothers' Education	.77	.60	.00	.02
Number of Children	.77	.60	.00	.07

X. SUMMARY OF REGRESSION ANALYSES

For all mothers and fathers in the sample the attitude of the spouse was found to be the most important predictor of attitudes toward education, at least among the possible causes taken into account in this study. Spouse's attitude was followed by socio-

economic level, the education of the mother, and the number of children in the family. The latter two were important as predictors of mothers' attitudes more than of fathers' attitudes.

For Protestant mothers however socio-economic level, fathers' attitudes, and education were roughly equally valuable predictors. Among Catholic mothers only fathers' attitudes and number of children seemed to have any real predictive value.

Among Protestant fathers, mothers' attitudes were the strongest single predictor of attitude with socio-economic level and mothers' education having roughly equal predictive value. For Catholic fathers, only mothers' attitudes and socio-economic level were significant predictors of attitudes toward education.

The literature reviewed in Chapter II referred to greater "Freedom of thought or independent mind" and greater degrees of "individualism" among Protestants. Considering this and current official Catholic philosophy concerning the role of women, one is led to speculate that the attitudes of Catholic mothers are more likely to be a reflection of those of her spouse than might be the case in a Protestant family. The stronger correlation between Catholic fathers' and mothers' attitudes found in this study lends some support for this view.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I. SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The Problem

The purpose of this study was to test hypothesized relationships between the attitudes toward education of parents in St. John's and selected social variables. The major hypotheses predicted that mothers' and fathers' attitudes would be closely related to socio-economic level, the number of children in the family, and the education of the mother of the family. A general hypothesis predicted different degrees of correlation between attitudes and the social variables for Protestant and Catholic families.

The Sample

The sample consisted of one hundred and thirty sets of parents of grade six students in the City of St. John's, Newfoundland. Of this number, completed information was obtained on sixty-eight sets of parents. A comparison of levels of socio-economic status between respondents and non-respondents showed no significant differences, and the author concluded that the fairly high non-response rate had not seriously jeopardized his analysis.

The Instruments

Information regarding the occupation of the father, family

size, religious affiliation, and mothers' education was obtained by means of a self-administered questionnaire. Included in the questionnaire was an attitude scale which was adapted by the investigator from an earlier study designed to measure parental attitudes toward education. Socio-economic level of the family was determined by referring the occupation of the head of the household to the Blishen Occupational Scale.

The questionnaire was distributed and collected by the investigator between May 29 and July 30, 1970. All data from the questionnaire was coded and punched on computer cards. Zero order correlations, partial correlations, and multiple regression analyses were carried out on the facilities of the Newfoundland and Labrador Computer Services, Limited. These analyses were used to test the hypotheses of the study.

Main Findings

The main findings of the study are as follows:

1. Within each family there was a strong positive correlation between the attitudes of the mothers and fathers. This was true for both the Protestant and Catholic subsamples, although Catholic parents seemed to agree with each other even more than Protestant parents.
2. Mothers' attitudes correlated negatively with the number of children in the family.
3. The number of children in the family did not correlate with attitudes toward education among either Catholic or Protestant fathers.

4. Socio-economic level was positively related to fathers' attitude toward education in both Protestant and Catholic families. The strength of the relationship was not significantly different between the two groups.
5. Mothers' attitudes were positively related to socio-economic level. The relationship was stronger for Protestant mothers than for Catholic mothers.
6. Mothers' attitudes were closely related to their level of education. The correlation, positive in both cases, was weaker among Catholics.
7. Socio-economic level was related to religious denomination. The socio-economic level of Protestant families in the study was significantly higher than that of Catholic families.
8. In the sample studied socio-economic level was negatively related to the number of children in the family. Parents in lower socio-economic levels tended to have more children than those in higher socio-economic classes.

II. CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions are derived from the findings presented above:

1. In a given family the attitudes toward education of the mother (or the father) are likely to be similar to those of the spouse. For example, a negative attitude on the part of the husband generally means his wife will also have a negative attitude. The incidences of similarity and the degree of agreement are likely to be

higher between partners in a Catholic family than in a Protestant family. Therefore, it seems that spouses have a tremendous impact on each others' attitudes toward education. In Catholic families this seems to flow from the husband to the wife while in Protestant families the flow could be in either direction.

In his dealings with the Catholic home, therefore, the administrator might find it advantageous to aim his message at the father. In dealing with the Protestant home, however, it may be aimed at either or both parents.

2. In a family with a large number of children one might expect less value to be placed upon education by the mother than in a family with a few children. This is true of both Catholic and Protestant families. However, fathers' attitudes are not significantly influenced by the number of children in his family. Thus the administrator should be prepared to find and counter more negative attitudes from mothers with large families. The implications here are important. They include the children's regular attendance at school, their attitudes toward school, and their being supplied with the necessary school materials. At the same time, assuming that the attitudes of the mothers will be reflected in their children, effective guidance programs will be necessary to lead students from large families to more positive attitudes toward education.

3. The higher the socio-economic level of the family the more positively one seems to regard education. Conversely less value is placed upon education as one descends the socio-economic scale. No

discernible differences exist between Catholic and Protestant fathers in this regard but the attitudes of Protestant mothers are more closely tied to socio-economic level than are those of Catholic mothers.

There is no suggestion here that these from lower socio-economic levels have negative attitudes toward education. However, it might be concluded that the more positive attitudes of those of higher socio-economic levels might propell them to higher education and hence to even higher socio-economic levels. This is another case of the 'rich' becoming richer and the poor, by comparison, becoming poorer.

To the practicing administrator the relationship between attitude and socio-economic level is valuable information. In schools or districts encompassing a number of socio-economic groups the administrator might need an equivalent number of public relation programs, and possibly an equivalent number of curricula. He might expect a greater degree of public cooperation if he works in an upper class area than in a lower class area: and, assuming that the attitudes of students reflect those of their parents, he might expect fewer discipline problems and higher achievement levels from students in higher socio-economic neighbourhoods.

In dealing with mothers (and it is the investigator's personal experience that the majority of home-school contacts are through the mothers) the administrator will find that his emphases may have to vary between Catholic and Protestant homes since the attitudes of Protestant mothers are more likely to be typical class attitudes than those of Catholic mothers.

In lower class areas it may be necessary to develop public educational programs to ensure that both parents and students achieve an awareness of the importance of an educated citizenry to the meaningful growth and development of society.

4. The more educated the mother the more value she places upon education. This relationship between attitude and education is stronger among Protestant mothers than among Catholics.

It may be concluded from this that the children of the more highly educated mothers are going to be the better all around students since the mothers' more positive attitudes will be reflected in the attitudes of their children. The administrator, in addition, might find that he can look to the more highly educated mothers for greater co-operation. He will find this to be especially so among Protestant mothers who tend to display this tendency more frequently than Catholic mothers.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1. There is a need for a similar study to be carried out in a rural area to determine whether attitudes toward education are different in rural and urban areas.
2. There is a need for a similar urban study which draws on a much larger sample. This will help to ensure that generalization to the wider population is more valid.
3. Since only about 50 - 60 percent of the variance in parental attitudes toward education has been explained by the variables used in the study, there is a need for a study which will

identify other factors which contribute to the variations in such attitudes.

4. The Blishen Occupational Scale seems to have enough serious limitations to warrant another study using a socio-economic scale which will more nearly reflect the true socio-economic level of the subjects.

5. The relationships between the variables used in this study need to be researched in greater depth, particularly the relationship between socio-economic level and religion.

6. Since the attitude of the spouse seems to be the most important predictor of either mothers' or fathers' attitudes, we need to know what determines this attitude and which takes precedence: mothers' or fathers'.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

MEMORANDUM FROM ASSOCIATE DEPUTY MINISTER

GOVERNMENT OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR
Department of Education

St. John's

MEMORANDUM TO CERTAIN DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS.

Mr. Larry Moss is carrying out a study involving parental attitudes and values of a number of parents. In order to proceed with his study, he needs certain information regarding the addresses of parents from whom a random sample is to be selected.

The purpose of this letter is to indicate that the Department of Education has no objection to your providing the information required. In fact, we would be pleased if you could provide the information required because we would like to encourage this kind of study.

C. Roebathan
ASSOCIATE DEPUTY MINISTER

CR/cb
April 21, 1970

APPENDIX B

THE RUNDQUIST AND SLETTO ATTITUDE SCALE (1936)

1. A man can learn more by working four years than by going to high school.

Strongly	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly
Agree				Disagree
2. The more education a person has the better he can enjoy life.
3. Education helps a man to use his leisure time to better advantage.
4. A good education is a great comfort to a man out of work.
5. Only subjects like reading, writing, and arithmetic should be taught at public expense.
6. Education is no help in getting a job today.
7. Most young people are getting too much education.
8. A high school education is worth all the time and effort it requires.
9. Our schools encourage an individual to think for himself.
10. There are too many fads and frills in modern education.
11. Education only makes a person discontented.
12. School training is of little help in meeting the problems of real life.
13. Education tends to make a person less conceited.
14. High school courses are too impractical.
15. Solution of the worlds problems will come through education.
16. A man is foolish to keep going to school if he can get a job.
17. Savings spent on education are wisely invested.
18. An educated man can advance more rapidly in business and industry.
19. Parents should not be compelled to send their children to school.

APPENDIX B (Continued)

20. Education is more valuable than most people think.
21. A high school education makes a man a better citizen.
22. Public money spent on education in the past few years could have been used more wisely for other purposes.

APPENDIX C

BLISHEN OCCUPATIONAL CLASS SCALE

An Occupational Class Scale (481)

APPENDIX

Table 1 - Occupations Ranked and Grouped According to Combined Standard Scores for Income and Years of Schooling, by Sex, Canada, 1951.

Occupation	Sex	Score ^b
Class 1		
Judges	M	90.0
Dentists	M	82.5
Physicians and Surgeons	M	81.2
Lawyers	M	78.8
Engineers, chemical	M	77.8
Actuaries	M	77.6
Engineers, mining	M	77.4
Engineers, electrical	M	75.2
Engineers, civil	M	75.0
Architects	M	73.2
Class 2		
Statisticians	F	72.9
Engineers, mechanical	M	72.6
Professors	M	72.0
Stock and bond brokers	M	70.9
Veterinarians	M	69.8
Business service officers	M	69.5
Statisticians	M	68.8
Mining Managers	M	67.9
Finance Managers	M	67.7
Osteopaths and chiropractors	M	67.3
Dietitians	F	67.0
Professors	F	66.7
Chemists and metallurgists	M	65.8
Officers, armed forces	M	65.1
Air pilots	M	65.0
Chemists and metallurgists	F	64.8
Agricultural professionals	M	64.8
Electricity, gas and water officials	M	64.7
Other professions, Hockey players	M	64.0
Construction Managers	M	63.8
Wholesale trade managers	M	63.5
Librarians	F	63.4
Authors, editors and journalists	M	63.4

Occupation	Sex	Score ^b
Manufacturing managers	M	63.0
Community service workers	M	62.4
Social welfare workers	F	62.2
Osteopaths and chiropractors	F	62.2
School teachers	M	62.2
Librarians	M	62.0
Accountants and auditors	M	61.8
Authors, editors and journalists	F	61.4
Clergymen	M	61.0
Designers, clothing	M	60.6
Gov't. service officials	M	60.6
Transportation managers	M	60.1
Farmers	F	59.4
Community service workers	F	59.1
Dispatchers, train	M	58.5
Designers, cloth	F	58.2
Insurance agents	M	58.2
Foremen, communication	M	58.1
Advertising agents	M	58.0
Managers N.E.S. ^c	M	57.7
School teachers	F	57.6
Artists and teachers of Art	M	57.6
Nurses, graduate	F	57.4
Real estate agents and dealers	M	57.0
Social welfare workers	M	57.0
Retail trade managers	M	57.0
Class 3		
Actors, models	F	56.9
Commercial travellers	M	56.7
Advertising agents	F	56.6
Forestry managers	M	56.5
Artists, commercial	F	56.4
Radio announcers	M	56.4
Laboratory technicians N.E.S. ^c	F	56.0
Artists, commercial	M	56.0
Draughtsmen	M	56.0
Brokers, agents and appraisers	M	56.0
Inspectors, communication	M	55.0
Artists and teachers of Art	F	55.0
Surveyors	M	55.0
Recreation service officers	M	54.8
Purchasing agents	M	54.8
Agents, ticket station	M	54.3
Laboratory technicians N.E.S. ^c	M	54.2
Stenographers and typists	F	54.1
Conductors, railway	M	54.1
Radio operators	M	54.0

Occupation	Sex	Score ^b
Locomotive engineers	M	54.0
Photo-engravers	M	54.0
Music teachers	M	53.7
Teachers N.E.S. ^c	F	53.6
Office appliance operators	F	53.4
Teachers N.E.S. ^c	M	53.4
Retail trade managers	F	53.3
Telegraph operators	F	52.9
Foremen, mining	M	52.8
Window-decorators	F	52.3
Nurses, graduate	M	52.2
Actors	M	52.1
Stenographers	M	52.0

Class 4

Book-keepers and cashiers	F	51.9
Forewoman, communication	F	51.8
Foremen, manufacturing	M	51.8
Photographers	M	51.8
Inspectors, construction	M	51.7
Window-decorators	M	51.6
Telegraph operators	M	51.6
Petroleum refiners	M	51.6
Toolmakers	M	51.6
Engravers, except photo-engravers	M	51.4
Undertakers	M	51.3
Office clerks	F	51.2
Locomotive firemen	M	51.2
Book-keepers and cashiers	M	51.2
Brakemen, railway	M	51.1
Power station operators	M	51.0
Office appliance operators	M	51.0
Doctor, dentist attendants	F	50.8
Motion picture projectionists	M	50.8
Radio repairmen	M	50.8
Captains, mates, pilots	M	50.7
Foremen, transportation	M	50.7
Foremen, commercial	M	50.6
Personal service officers	M	50.5

Class 5

Patternmakers	M	50.4
Compositors	M	50.4
Inspectors, metal	M	50.4
Paper-makers	M	50.4
Photographers	F	50.2
Policemen	M	50.2
Office clerks	M	50.2

Occupation	Sex	Score ^b
Mechanics, airplane	M	50.1
Inspectors, metal products	F	50.0
Music teachers	F	50.0
Firemen, fire department	M	49.8
Pressmen and plate printers	M	49.8
Telephone operators	F	49.6
Electricians	M	49.6
Machinists, metal	M	49.6
Linemen and servicemen	M	49.4
Engineering officers (on ships)	M	49.4
Baggagemen	M	49.4
Transportation Inspectors	M	49.4
Rolling millmen	M	49.4
Auctioneers	M	49.3
Inspectors and graders	M	49.2
Farmers	M	49.2
Photographic occupations N.E.S. ^c	M	49.2
Collectors	M	49.1
Dental mechanics	M	49.1
Sulphite cookers	M	46.0
Wire drawers	M	46.9
Other ranks, armed forces	M,F	46.8
Electroplaters	M	46.8
Plumbers	M	46.8
Motormen	M	46.7
Quarriers	M	46.6
Machine operators, metal	M	46.5
Paint makers	M	46.4
Filers	M	46.4
Upholsterers	M	46.3
Knitters	M	46.3
Wood Inspectors	M	46.3
Barbers	F	46.2
Milliners	F	46.2
Tobacco products workers	F	46.2
Furnacemen	M	46.2
Furriers	M	46.2
Brothers (religion)	M	46.1
Paper box makers	M	46.1
Other bookbinding workers N.E.S. ^c	F	46.0
Coremakers	M	46.0
Vulcanizers	M	46.0
Liquor and beverage workers	M	46.0
Postmen	M	45.9
Meat canners	F	45.9
Other upholstering workers N.E.S. ^c	F	45.8
Bookbinders	F	45.8
Transportation, storage, communication workers	F	4.58

Occupation	Sex	Score ^b
Polishers, metal	M	45.8
Furriers	F	45.6
Structural Iron Workers	M	45.6
Mechanics, motor	M	45.6
Textile Inspectors	M	45.6
Cabinet and furniture makers	M	45.5
Loom fixers	M	45.5
Weavers, textile	F	45.4
Butchers	M	45.4
Miners	M	45.4
Assemblers, electrical equipment	F	48.9
Operators, electric street railway	M	48.8
Stationary engineers	M	48.7
Bookbinders	M	48.6
Tire and tube builders	F	48.4
Canvassers	M	48.2
Telephone operators	M	48.2
Switchmen and signalmen	M	48.2
Opticians	M	48.2
Jewellers and watchmakers	M	48.2
Personal service workers	F	48.1
Assemblers, electrical equipment	M	48.1
Tire and tube builders	M	48.1
Millwrights (repairs machinery in mills)	M	48.0
Religious workers N.E.S. ^c	M	48.0
Fitters, metal	F	47.9
Milliners	M	47.8
Construction foremen	M	47.7
Opticians	F	47.6
Bus drivers, taxi	M	47.6
Heat treaters	M	47.6
Religious workers N.E.S. ^c	F	47.6
Photographic workers N.E.S. ^c	F	47.4
Machine operators, metal	F	47.4
Boilermakers	M	47.3
Jewellers and watchmakers	F	47.2
Other bookbinding workers N.E.S. ^c	M	47.2
Sales clerks	M	47.2
Hoistmen, cranemen	M	47.2
Welders, general trade	M	47.2
Mechanics N.E.S. ^c	M	47.2
Mechanics, railroad	M	47.2
Fitters, metal	M	47.2
Cutters, textile goods	M	47.2
Millmen	M	47.2
Wire drawers	F	47.1
Core makers	F	47.1
Riggers	M	47.1
Sheetmetal workers	M	47.1

Occupation	Sex	Score ^b
Shipping clerks	M	47.0
Logging foremen	M	45.4
Labellers	M	45.3
Nurses, in training	F	45.2
Meat canners	M	45.2
Farm managers	M	45.2
Platerers	M	45.2
Textile Inspectors	M	45.1
Other pulp and paper workers	F	45.1

Class 6

Winders and warpers	F	45.0
Carders and drawing frame workers	F	45.0
Sales clerks	F	45.0
Moulders, metal	M	45.0
Nurses, practical	M	45.0
Cutters, textile goods	F	44.9
Elevator tenders	F	44.8
Tailloresses	F	44.8
Textile Inspectors	F	44.8
Potmen	M	44.8
Timbermen	M	44.7
Prospectors	M	44.7
Oilers, power plant	M	44.7
Liquor and beverage workers	F	44.6
Paper box makers	F	44.6
Kiln burners	M	44.6
Brick and stone masons	M	44.6
Construction machine operators	M	44.5
Canvassers	F	44.4
Service station attendants	M	44.4
Painters and decorators	M	44.4
Hat and cap makers	M	44.4
Bleachers and dyers	M	44.4
Spinners and twisters	F	44.3
Rubber shoe makers	F	44.2
Porters	M	44.2
Tobacco products workers	M	44.2
Millers	M	44.2
Nursers, practical	F	44.1
Finishers, textile	F	44.0
Blacksmiths	M	44.0
Tailors	M	44.0
Bakers	M	43.8
Weavers	M	43.8
Rubber shoe makers	M	43.8
Labellers	F	43.7
Other personal service workers	F	43.6
Barbers	M	43.6

Occupation	Sex	Score ^b
Truck drivers	M	43.6
Packers and wrappers	M	43.6
Finishers, wood	M	43.6
Finishers, textile	M	43.6
Tanners	M	43.6
Hat and cap makers	F	43.5
Cutters, leather	M	43.5
Commercial packers and wrappers	F	43.4
Teamsters	M	43.4
Stone cutters	M	43.4
Riveters and rivet heaters	M	43.4
Butter and cheese makers	M	43.3
Chauffeurs	M	43.3
Boiler firemen	M	43.3
Spinners	M	43.3
Inspectors N.E.S., graders ^c	F	43.2
Postmen	F	43.2
Waiters	M	43.2
Carpenters	M	43.2
Sewers and sewing machine operators	M	43.2
Forest rangers	M	43.2
Lock keepers, canalmen	M	43.1
Wood turners	M	43.1
Labourers, mines and quarriers	M	43.1
Sewers and sewing machine operators	F	43.0
Brick and stone masons	M	43.0
Textile inspectors	F	42.8
Machine operators, boot and shoe	F	42.8
Knitters	F	42.8
Guards, commissionaires	M	42.8
Winders, warpers, reelers	M	42.8
Glove makers	M	42.7
Cutters, leather	F	42.6
Elevator tenders	M	42.5
Bakers	F	42.4
Machine operators, boot and shoe	M	42.4
Launderers	M	42.4
Firemen, on ships	M	42.4
Cement and concrete finishers	M	42.4
Dressmakers and seamstresses	F	42.3
Carders and drawing frame tenders	M	42.3
Box and basket makers	F	42.2
Coopers	M	42.2
Sailors	M	42.1
Harness and saddle makers	M	42.0
Nuns	F	41.8

Occupation	Sex	Score ^b
Class 7		
Cooks	M	41.8
Janitors	M	41.6
Laundresses, cleaners and dyers	F	41.4
Sectionmen and trackmen	M	41.4
Charworkers and cleaners	M	41.3
Paper box, bag and envelope makers	M	41.3
Sawyers	M	41.2
Longshoremen	M	41.2
Waitresses	F	41.2
Glove makers	F	41.2
Labourers	M	40.8
Cooks	F	40.5
Messengers	M	40.2
Shoemakers	M	40.2
Ushers	M	40.1
Janitors	F	40.0
Hawkers	M	39.3
Housekeepers and matrons	F	38.9
Hotel cafe and household workers	M	38.8
Newsboys	M	38.7
Guides	M	37.8
Hotel cafe and household workers	F	37.8
Farm labourers	M	37.5
Lumbermen	M	37.4
Charworkers and cleaners	F	37.4
Fishermen	M	36.9
Bootblacks	M	36.8
Fish canners, curers and packers	M	36.2
Fish canners, curers and packers	F	36.0
Hunters and trappers	M	32.0

a. Canada, Dominion of Statistics, Census of Canada, V, Table 21 and IV, Table II (Ottawa, 1953), Canada, Dept. of Internal Revenue, Taxation Statistics, 1951 (Ottawa, 1953). Additional information supplied by D.B.S. Census Analysis Section.

b. The mean of the scores = 50; the standard deviation = 10 (calculated separately for each sex).

c. N.E.S. - not elsewhere specified.

APPENDIX D

LETTER TO PARENTS

MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND
St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada

Department of Educational Administration

April 29, 1970

Dear Parents:

I am a graduate student in Educational Administration at Memorial University. As part of the requirements of my program I am conducting a survey of the feelings of parents about certain aspects of education. The results of this survey will, it is hoped, be of great value to educators in helping them to improve communications between the home and the school and to make the education of our children more relevant to their particular needs.

I would very much like to have you and your husband (or wife) to participate with me in this survey.

Within a few days I will be calling at your home to see you personally about this. I will be asking you to complete a short questionnaire for me which I will pick up from you after three or four days.

I hope that you will consent to help me since without the help of the parents this study can not possibly be done.

Yours very sincerely,

Larry Moss, Graduate Student
Dept. of Ed. Admin.

APPENDIX E
THE QUESTIONNAIRES

Dear Parents:

I am most grateful that you have consented to help me in my study of the feelings of parents concerning education. Please be assured that your participation in this project will be extremely valuable to teachers in helping them to better meet the educational needs of your children.

Parts I and III of the questionnaire may be completed by either the father or the mother or both together. However there are two copies of Part II -- one for the father and one for the mother. THESE SHOULD BE COMPLETED INDIVIDUALLY. PLEASE DO NOT COMPARE ANSWERS WITH EACH OTHER. It is important that the answers that you give are guided by your own personal feelings.

When you have completed the entire questionnaire please seal it in the envelope provided and drop it into any mailbox.

I assure you that any information that you give will be held in strictest confidence and will be used only for the purpose outlined in this letter and in my previous letters to you.

Once again, may I say how pleased I am that you are helping me to do this study. It could not possibly be done without your cooperation.

Yours very sincerely,

Larry Moss

APPENDIX E (Continued)

PART I
PERSONAL

1. What is the occupation of the father of the family?
(for example: electrician, salesman, stevedore, etc.) _____
2. What was the last grade passed in school or at
university by the mother of the family? _____
3. How many children are in your family? _____
4. What is your family's religious denomination _____
5. How many years have you lived in St. John's? _____ years
6. If the answer to No. 5 is less than five years, where
did you live before moving to St. John's?

Town

Province

APPENDIX E (Continued)

PART II

To Be Completed By The MOTHER Of The Family.

DIRECTIONS: Please read each item carefully, and check quickly the response which best expresses your own feelings about the statement. Let your own feelings determine your answer. DO NOT SPEND MUCH TIME ON ANY ONE ITEM.

If you are in doubt, check the response which comes closest to your own feeling about the statement. For example, if you think that the statement is entirely wrong, check the phrase "strongly disagree."

EXAMPLE:

A high school education makes a man a better citizen.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> ✓
AGREE				DISAGREE

If you think that there is some truth in the statement, but you do not completely agree with it, check the phrase "agree."

EXAMPLE:

Everyone should go to university.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	✓ <u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

PLEASE WORK RAPIDLY. Be sure to answer every item.

Some of the statements may appear to be the same as others. Please answer them according to your feelings.

APPENDIX E (Continued)

1. A young person will benefit more by working for four years than by going to high school.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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2. Education enables people to enjoy life better.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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3. Education helps people to use their leisure time to better advantage.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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4. A good education is no comfort to a person who has just lost his job.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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5. An educated person is better able to think for himself.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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6. Education is of little help in meeting the problems of real life.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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7. Educated people are better equipped to adjust to our changing society.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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8. One solution to the world's poverty problem is education.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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APPENDIX E (Continued)

9. Parents should not be expected to make personal sacrifices in order to put their children through college.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

10. Education is valuable to everyone.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

11. It is better for a person to go to college or to trade school than to go immediately to work.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

12. University education is doing more harm than good to most people.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

13. Public money spent for education could be more wisely spent for other purposes.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

APPENDIX E (Continued)

PART II

To Be Completed By The FATHER Of The Family.

DIRECTIONS: Please read each item carefully, and check quickly the response which best expresses your own feelings about the statement. Let your own feelings determine your answer. DO NOT SPEND MUCH TIME ON ANY ONE ITEM.

If you are in doubt, check the response which comes closest to your own feeling about the statement. For example, if you think that the statement is entirely wrong, check the phrase "strongly disagree."

EXAMPLE:

A high school education makes a man a better citizen.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

If you think that there is some truth in the statement, but you do not completely agree with it, check the phrase "agree."

EXAMPLE:

Everyone should go to university.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

PLEASE WORK RAPIDLY. Be sure to answer every item.

Some of the statements may appear to be the same as others. Please answer them according to your feelings.

APPENDIX E (Continued)

1. A young person will benefit more by working for four years than by going to high school.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

2. Education enables people to enjoy life better.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

3. Education helps people to use their leisure time to better advantage.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

4. A good education is no comfort to a person who has just lost his job.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

5. An educated person is better able to think for himself.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

6. Education is of little help in meeting problems of real life.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

7. Educated people are better equipped to adjust to our changing society.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

8. One solution to the world's poverty problem is education.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

APPENDIX E (Continued)

9. Parents should not be expected to make personal sacrifices in order to put their children through college.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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10. Education is valuable to everyone.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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11. It is better for a person to go to college or to trade school than to go immediately to work.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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12. University education is doing more harm than good to most people.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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13. Public money spent for education could be more wisely spent for other purposes.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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APPENDIX F

FOLLOW-UP LETTERS

MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND
St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada

Department of Educational Administration

June 19, 1970

Dear Parents:

You will recall that a week or so ago I left a questionnaire at your house which you agreed to complete and return to me. Perhaps you have already done so. If you have, please accept my sincere thanks.

There are still some, however, who have not returned the questionnaires. I realize that with school being out and vacation time upon us, those things are a bit of a bother. I would like to point out, however, that the success of my study of parents' attitudes toward education depends upon a one hundred percent response to the questionnaire.

If you have not already done so, will you please try to get the questionnaire back to me as soon as it is convenient for you.

Thank you once again for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Larry Moss

APPENDIX F (Continued)

MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND
St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada

Department of Educational Administration

P.O. Box 91
Education Building
Tel. 579-5081, Ext. 2593
July 24, 1970

Dear Parents:

The success of my study of parents' attitudes toward education now depends upon a favourable response to the questionnaires which I left with you some weeks ago. Unless I get a better response I shall have to give up the project. I do not want to do this since I have been working on the study for eight months and would hate to see that much time and money wasted.

I realize that, with summer holidays and fine weather upon us, these things are rather a nuisance. However this is the only way that new knowledge about education can be gathered. If teachers like myself are unable to find out how parents feel about the various aspects of education, they will not be able to provide the kind of education that parents have the right to demand for their children.

This is why I appeal to you once again for your help. On THURSDAY, JULY 30, with your permission, I will call at your house to pick up the questionnaire. I hope that you will find it convenient to have it ready for me then.

Thank you again for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Larry Moss

APPENDIX G

TEST-RETEST QUESTIONNAIRE

MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND
St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada

Department of Educational Administration

April 29, 1970

Dear Parents:

I am a graduate student in Educational Administration at Memorial University. As part of the requirements of my programme, I am conducting a survey of the feelings that parents have about Education. I am convinced that this is a very worthwhile project, the results of which will be extremely helpful to our schools in meeting the needs of our students.

I would appreciate it if you and your spouse would take five minutes of your time to help me in this endeavour.

For the purpose of this survey, I have prepared a short questionnaire which I will leave with you for three or four days. At that time, I will return and collect them.

In completing the questionnaire, I would ask you to please work independently. DO NOT COMPARE ANSWERS WITH YOUR HUSBAND OR WIFE. It is important that the answers that you give are guided by your own personal feelings.

I assure you that any information that you give will be held in strictest confidence and will be used only for the purpose outlined above.

I am most grateful for your help since without it this project could not possibly be done.

Sincerely yours,

Larry Moss, Graduate Student
Dept. of Educational Admin.

APPENDIX G (Continued)

DIRECTIONS: Please read each item carefully, and check quickly the response which best expresses your own feelings about the statement. Let your own feelings determine your answer. DO NOT SPEND MUCH TIME ON ANY ONE ITEM.

If you are in doubt, check the response which comes closest to your own feelings about the statement. For example, if you think that the statement is entirely wrong, check the phrase "strongly disagree."

EXAMPLE:

A high school education makes a man a better citizen.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

If you think there is some truth in the statement, but you do not completely agree with it, check the phrase "agree."

EXAMPLE:

Everyone should go to university.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

PLEASE WORK RAPIDLY. Be sure to answer every item.

Some of the statements may appear to be the same as others. Please answer them according to your feelings.

APPENDIX G (Continued)

1. A young person will benefit more by working for four years than by going to high school.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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2. Education enables people to enjoy life better.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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3. Education helps people to use their leisure time to better advantage.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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4. A good education is no comfort to a person who has just lost his job.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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5. An educated person is better able to think for himself.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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6. Education is of little help in meeting the problems of real life.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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7. Educated people are better equipped to adjust to our changing society.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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8. One solution to the world's poverty problem is education.

<u>STRONGLY</u> AGREE	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u> DISAGREE
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APPENDIX G (Continued)

9. Parents should not be expected to make personal sacrifices in order to put their children through college.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

10. Education is valuable to everyone.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

11. It is better for a person to go to college or to trade school than to go immediately to work.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

12. University education is doing more harm than good to most people.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

13. Public money spent for education could be more wisely spent for other purposes.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

APPENDIX G (Continued)

MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND
St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada

Department of Educational Administration

9th May, 1970

Dear Parents:

Some time ago you were kind enough to complete a questionnaire for me in connection with my study of the values that parents place on certain aspects of education.

I hope you will not think that I am imposing on your good nature, but I am now seeking your help again.

The enclosed questionnaires are the same as the others which you completed for me. This repeat is necessary because I want to be absolutely sure that the questions were fully understood by everyone completing them.

DO NOT ATTEMPT TO RECALL HOW YOU ANSWERED THE QUESTIONS THE FIRST TIME. Answer them according to your present feelings about the statements.

When you have completed the questionnaire, place it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope provided and drop it into any mailbox.

Please accept my sincere thanks for all your help and co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Larry Moss.

APPENDIX H

RESPONSE PATTERNS FOR ITEMS ON THE ATTITUDE SCALE

PART II

DIRECTIONS: Please read each item carefully, and check quickly the response which best expresses your own feelings about the statement. Let your own feelings determine your answer. DO NOT SPEND MUCH TIME ON ANY ONE ITEM.

If you are in doubt, check the response which comes closest to your own feelings about the statement. For example, if you think that the statement is entirely wrong, check the phrase "strongly disagree."

EXAMPLE:

A high school education makes a man a better citizen.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

If you think that there is some truth in the statement, but you do not completely agree with it, check the phrase "agree."

EXAMPLE:

Everyone should go to university.

<u>STRONGLY</u>	<u>AGREE</u>	<u>UNDECIDED</u>	<u>DISAGREE</u>	<u>STRONGLY</u>
AGREE				DISAGREE

PLEASE WORK RAPIDLY. Be sure to answer every item.

Some of the statements may appear to be the same as others. Please answer them according to your feelings.

APPENDIX H (Continued)

1. A young person will benefit more by working for four years than by going to high school.

<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>71</u>	<u>53</u>
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
2. Education enables people to enjoy life better.

<u>29</u>	<u>80</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>0</u>
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
3. Education helps people to use their leisure time to better advantage.

<u>33</u>	<u>69</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>5</u>
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
4. A good education is no comfort to a person who has just lost his job.

<u>5</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>85</u>	<u>23</u>
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
5. An educated person is better able to think for himself.

<u>35</u>	<u>74</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>0</u>
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
6. Education is of little help in meeting the problems of real life.

<u>8</u>	<u>21</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>66</u>	<u>28</u>
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
7. Educated people are better equipped to adjust to our changing society.

<u>44</u>	<u>79</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>0</u>
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
8. One solution to the world's poverty problem is education.

<u>39</u>	<u>66</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>4</u>
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

APPENDIX H (Continued)

9. Parents should not be expected to make personal sacrifices in order to put their children through college.
- | | | | | |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| <u>5</u> | <u>24</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>65</u> | <u>31</u> |
| STRONGLY | AGREE | UNDECIDED | DISAGREE | STRONGLY |
| AGREE | | | | DISAGREE |
10. Education is valuable to everyone.
- | | | | | |
|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| <u>59</u> | <u>6</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>4</u> | <u>58</u> |
| STRONGLY | AGREE | UNDECIDED | DISAGREE | STRONGLY |
| AGREE | | | | DISAGREE |
11. It is better for a person to go to college or to trade school than to go immediately to work.
- | | | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| <u>35</u> | <u>56</u> | <u>16</u> | <u>24</u> | <u>0</u> |
| STRONGLY | AGREE | UNDECIDED | DISAGREE | STRONGLY |
| AGREE | | | | DISAGREE |
12. University education is doing more harm than good to most people.
- | | | | | |
|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| <u>3</u> | <u>12</u> | <u>16</u> | <u>61</u> | <u>39</u> |
| STRONGLY | AGREE | UNDECIDED | DISAGREE | STRONGLY |
| AGREE | | | | DISAGREE |
13. Public money spent for education could be more wisely spent for other purposes.
- | | | | | |
|----------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| <u>2</u> | <u>9</u> | <u>11</u> | <u>72</u> | <u>37</u> |
| STRONGLY | AGREE | UNDECIDED | DISAGREE | STRONGLY |
| AGREE | | | | DISAGREE |

Note: While a total of 68 families responded to the questionnaire, there were not 68 pairs of mothers and fathers. There were, in fact 64 pairs, one independent father, and two independent mothers for a total of 131 respondents.

APPENDIX I
TABULAR ANALYSIS OF SAMPLE

TABLE XI
MEAN SCORES ON THE BLISHEN SCALE

	Mean Score
Total Sample	51.5
Protestants	53.9
Catholics	50.0

TABLE XII
MEAN FAMILY SIZE

	Mean
Total Sample	5.49
Protestant Families	4.67
Catholic Families	6.02

APPENDIX I (Continued)

TABLE XIII

DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY RELIGION
AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN

# of Children in Family	% of Prot. Families	% of Cath. Families	% of All Families
1	3.7	2.4	2.9
2	22.3	4.9	11.8
3	14.8	9.8	11.8
4	14.8	9.8	11.8
5	14.8	24.4	20.6
6	3.7	7.3	5.9
7	11.1	17.1	14.6
8	7.4	9.8	8.8
9	0.0	7.3	4.3
10	3.7	0.0	1.5
11	0.0	2.4	1.5
12	3.7	0.0	1.5
13	0.0	2.4	1.5
14	0.0	2.4	1.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(N=27)	(N=41)	(N=68)

TABLE XIV
EMPLOYMENT STRUCTURE OF ST. JOHN'S
-PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION*

TYPE	CANADA	NFLD.	ST. JOHN'S
Total % Primary	14	19	1
Total % Secondary	20	11	9
Total % Tertiary	63	68	87
Transportation and Communication	9	14	14
Trade (Wholesale and Retail)	15	17	25
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	4	1	4
Commercial, Business, Personal Services	20	16	22
Education and Related	4	4	5
Health and Welfare	5	4	10
Public Administration and Defense	8	11	16
Unspecified	3	2	3

*Source: R. E. Pearson, Atlas of St. John's, Newfoundland, Department of Geography, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, 1969.

TABLE XV
EMPLOYMENT STRUCTURE OF ST. JOHN'S
- COMPARISON WITH SAMPLE

Type	% St. John's*	% Sample
Total % Primary	1	2
Total % Secondary	9	12
Total % Tertiary	87	83
Unspecified	3	3
Transportation and Communication	14	15
Trade (Wholesale and Retail)	25	26
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	4	4
Commercial, Business, Personal Services	22	27
Education and Related	5	5
Health and Welfare	10	6
Public Administration and Defense	16	14
Unspecified	3	3

*Source: R. E. Pearson, Atlas of St. John's, Newfoundland, Department of Geography, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, 1969.

APPENDIX I (Continued)

TABLE XVI
 NUMBER OF CHILDREN BY
 SOCIO-ECONOMIC LEVEL
 AND RELIGION

Blisshen Scale Occupational Class	Mean Number Children per Family		
	Sample	Protestant	Catholic
1 (High)	5.0	3.0	7.0
2	4.8	3.0	5.5
3	4.7	3.5	5.2
4	5.6	7.0	3.7
5	5.3	4.6	5.9
6	8.5	8.0	8.6
7	5.3	5.0	5.3
Means Total Groups	5.5	4.7	6.0

APPENDIX I (Continued)

TABLE XVII
FATHERS' OCCUPATIONS CLASSIFICATION
PER BLISHEN CATEGORIES

Blishen Scale Occupational Categories	Sample		% all Nfld.* (b)	Difference (a) - (b)
	Number	% (a)		
Class 1 (High)	2	2.9	8.5	-5.6
Class 2	17	25.0	7.5	17.5
Class 3	7	10.3	6.8	3.5
Class 4	7	10.3	8.5	1.5
Class 5	16	23.5	18.2	5.3
Class 6	11	16.2	26.7	-10.5
Class 7 (Low)	8	11.8	20.4	-8.6
Not Stated			3.4	

N = 68

* Adopted from R. E. Pearson, Atlas of St. John's, Newfoundland,
Department of Geography, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St.
John's, 1969.

APPENDIX I (Continued)

TABLE XVIII
NUMBER OF CHILDREN BY YEARS OF
MOTHERS' EDUCATION AND RELIGION

Years of Mothers' Education	<u>Mean Number Children per Family</u>		
	Sample	Protestant	Catholic
4-6	7.4	7.4	7.4
7-8	5.4	3.8	6.3
9-11	5.1	4.3	5.3
12-15	3.7	4.0	5.2
16 +	3.0	3.0	- -

APPENDIX I (Continued)

TABLE XIX
MOTHERS' YEARS OF EDUCATION

	Mean	Mode	Range
Sample	9.6	11.0	4 - 16
Catholic	9.4	10.5	5 - 15
Protestant	9.8	11.0	4 - 16

TABLE XX
MOTHERS CLASSIFIED BY YEARS
EDUCATION AND RELIGION

Years of Education	% of Sample	% of Protestants	% of Catholics
4 - 6	15.2	18.5	12.8
7 - 8	18.2	14.8	20.5
9 - 11	54.5	51.9	56.4
12 - 15	9.1	7.4	10.3
16 +	3.0	7.4	0.0
	100.0 (N=68)	100.0 (N=27)	100.0 (N=41)

APPENDIX I (Continued)

TABLE XXI
MEAN ATTITUDE SCORES

	Mean Score
Fathers	51.9
Catholic	52.3
Protestant	51.2
Mothers	52.7
Catholic	53.0
Protestant	52.4

Maximum Score 65
Minimum Score 13

APPENDIX J

THE ATTITUDE SCALE OUTLINE
OF TEST-RETEST PROCEDURE

Thirty sets of parents of Grade six students in St. John's who were not part of the main sample were asked to participate in the test-retest for reliability. These were chosen with the use of a table of random numbers and then eliminated from the master list so that they would not turn up in the main sample. Of the thirty families approached, twenty-two completed both copies of the attitude scale.

The attitude scale and a letter of explanation was delivered to participating families on or about April 29, 1970, and collected two days later. Approximately six weeks later the second testing was conducted.



